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ABSTRACT

A study is presented which attempts to investigate the interrelationships between certain assumptions about the nature of people held by the county extension leader, his sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and his performance of his function of leading the county staff. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire from 81 county leaders and by a rating of the county leaders as administrators by their immediate supervisors. A review of the literature was also conducted. The chi square was used to test the relationship between variables as hypothesized in five hypotheses. Results are given. Conclusions include: (1) County extension leaders in Mississippi are extremely achievement conscious; and (2) Graduate study is related to assumptions about the nature of people. (CK)

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THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF CERTAIN ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE, SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION-DISSATISFACTION, AND ADMINISTRATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF COUNTY LEADERS OF THE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

By
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Doctor of Philosophy

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Early in man's existence he found that his needs could be satisfied better if he pooled his resources and talents with others in group association and effort. This ultimately led to the complex organizational arrangements that characterize our society.[1] Organizations are created to pursue specific goals.[2]

The effectiveness of the organization in accomplishing its goals is dependent upon how well its resources are allocated and utilized. How well this is done is, in turn, at least partially dependent upon the performance of those individuals in the organization who have management, or administrative, responsibilities.[3] This study will focus upon one administrative position in a large adult education

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[1]Billy J. Hodge and Herbert J. Johnson, Management and Organizational Behavior (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970), p. 3.

[2]Amitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 5.

[3]Dan Voich, Jr. and Daniel A. Wren, Principles of Management (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1968), p. 3.

agency--the Cooperative Extension Service. The effectiveness of this organization is largely dependent upon the performance of one of its most important resources--its personnel. This study will examine the interrelationship of the assumptions made about the nature of people by the first line manager[1] in this organization, the source of his job satisfactions and dissatisfactions, and how well he manages or leads the county staff in the pursuit of the goals of the organization. (This leadership or management function will be called the "leadership function" in future references in this dissertation.)

Background

The Cooperative Extension Service has been called the largest public supported, informal adult education and development organization and America's only national system of adult education.[2] This organization was created in 1914 with the passage by Congress of the Smith-Lever Act. The legislation specified that this new organization was ". . . to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to

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[1]For a discussion of managerial levels see ibid., pp. 12-13.

[2]Edgar J. Boone, "The Cooperative Extension Service," in Handbook of Adult Education, ed. by Robert M. Smith, George F. Aker, and J. R. Kidd (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970), p. 265.

agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same. . . ."[1] A cooperative arrangement provided financial support from the national, state, and local levels of government.[2]

The county became the basic unit in the Cooperative Extension Service. The typical county professional staff includes three to four extension educators.[3] Programs are normally developed on the county level based on local needs and conditions. This emphasis on involvement of local people and the concentration of the bulk of the employees at the county level has resulted in an organization with broad spans of control. Individual extension workers are not closely supervised and operate for the most part in the absence of fellow workers.[4]

The span of control in the Cooperative Extension Service of Mississippi State University prior to 1963 was very broad. One district agent supervised all of the male employees in a 20 or 21 county district, and another did the same with the female employees. Beginning in 1963 a

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[1]"Smith-Lever Act," reproduced in The Cooperative Extension Service, ed. by H. C. Sanders (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966), p. 426.

[2]Boone.

[3]Ibid., p. 271.

[4]Robert L. Bruce and G. L. Carter, Jr., "Administrative Climate," Journal of Cooperative Extension, Vol. 5 (Spring, 1967), p. 9.

new organizational structure was formed in which one district agent supervised all of the extension workers in his district (see Figure 1). At this same time there was appointed in each county a county extension leader who was ". . . responsible to the District Agent for all the administrative matters affecting the Extension personnel and program . . ."[1] in the county.

These duties have been formalized in a job description:

> The County Extension Leader is responsible for providing administrative leadership for the development, implementation, and evaluation of an effective county Extension program which meets the needs of local people and complies with the policies and objectives of the Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service.[2]

In addition, the county extension leader has responsibility for administrative management to include such matters as budget, arrangement for office space and secretarial help, and the supervision of operations of the county office. Further, he is responsible for the administrative supervision of county staff members, distribution of the work load, counsel of staff members on program matters, counsel with district staff on assignment and performance

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[1] W. M. Bost, "The Job of the County Extension Leader and His Responsibilities," unpublished paper presented at County Leader Training Meeting, State College, Mississippi, December 17-20, 1962, p. 6.

[2] "County Extension Leader," Cooperative Extension Service Job Descriptions, Mississippi State University, State College, Mississippi, November 3, 1967, p. 4-1.

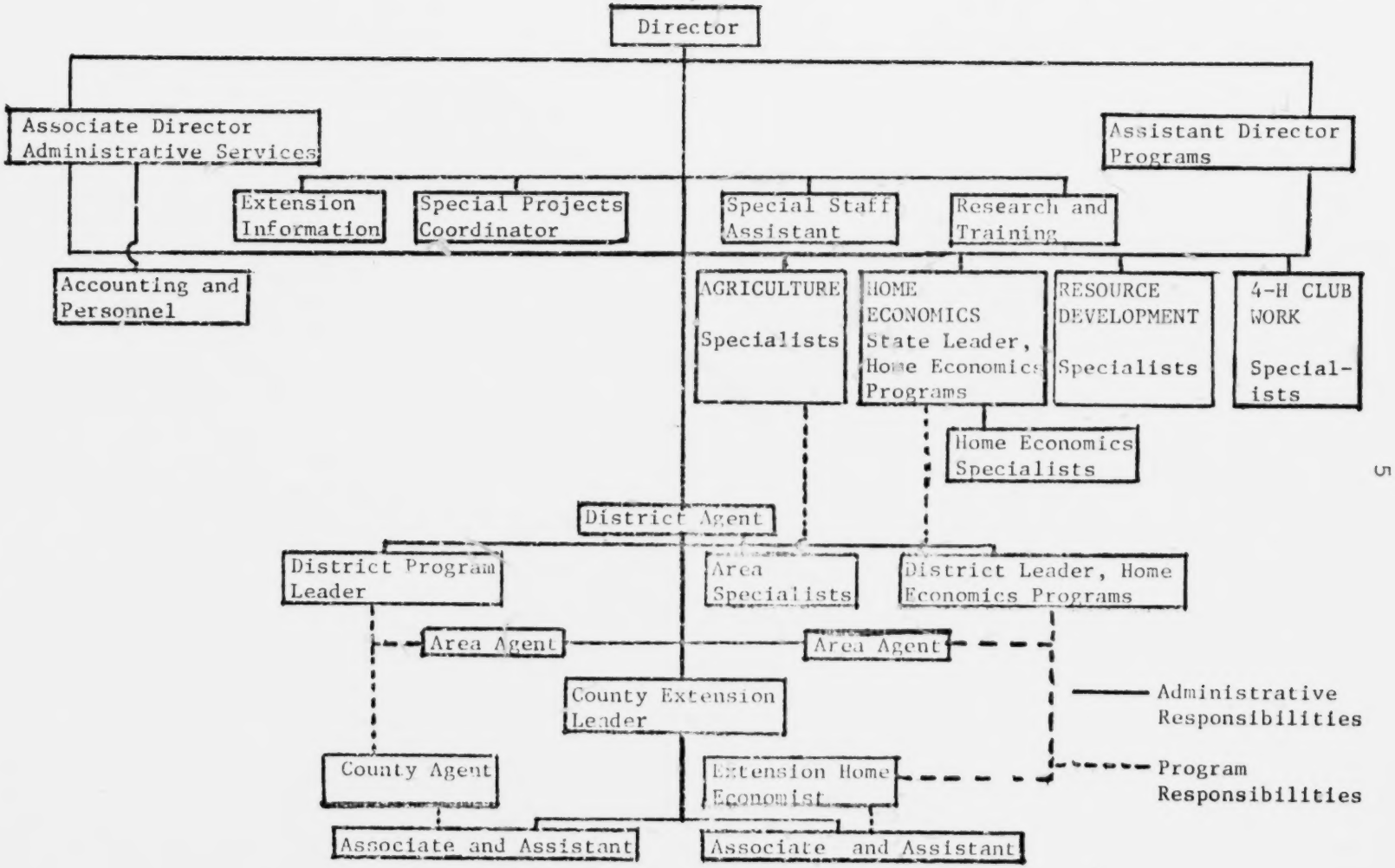

Figure 1 - Organization Chart, Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service, April, 1971.

of staff members, and the employment and supervision of the secretarial staff.[1]

Objectives of the Study

As the first line manager of the Cooperative Extension Service of Mississippi State University, the county extension leader has great influence upon the success or failure of educational programs of this organization in his county. This study will focus upon this individual and will have the following objectives:

1. Describe the county extension leader in Mississippi according to the assumptions that he makes about the nature of people.

2. Explore possible reasons for variations in the assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension leaders.

3. Describe Mississippi county extension leaders according to their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

4. Explore possible reasons for variations in sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by Mississippi county extension leaders.

5. Determine the relationship between assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension

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[1] Ibid., pp. 4-1-4-3.

leaders and their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

6. Determine the relationship between assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension leaders and performance of the leadership function.

7. Determine the relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by Mississippi county extension leaders and performance of the leadership function.

Significance of the Study

A recent Joint U.S. Department of Agriculture and National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges Extension Study Committee has called for "strong and innovative administrative leadership" in the Cooperative Extension Service of the future.[1] This committee also recommended that personnel in the field staff have backgrounds in the social sciences.[2] Boone has agreed that staff members should be well trained in the social sciences as well as in technical areas.[3] Hyatt has recognized that supervisors and administrators in the Cooperative Extension Service require

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[1] A People and a Spirit, A Report of the Joint USDA-NASULGC Extension Study Committee (Fort Collins, Colorado: Printing and Publications Service, Colorado State University, November, 1968), p. 74.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Boone, p. 279.

competencies quite different from those required by a county extension agent, area specialist, or state specialist. He pointed out that the mere promotion of an individual to an administrative or supervisory position is no guarantee that he will perform effectively unless he is adequately prepared for that role. Extension workers need to know and understand the principles of administration and supervision as one of the generalized areas of competence relevant to the Extension worker's job.[1]

According to McGregor, a professional can be distinguished from a layman by the degree to which he relies upon knowledge of science and of his colleagues rather than upon knowledge gained through personal experience. It is now possible for the manager to be a professional in these respects since he can draw upon a reasonable and growing body of knowledge in the social sciences to aid him in achieving his managerial objectives.[2] McGregor also believed that there are a number of important characteristics of individuals and the work environment which conventional management practices do not take into account. Behavioral science offers the possibility for improving organized human

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[1]George Hyatt, Jr., "Staff Competence," Journal of Cooperative Extension, Vol. 4 (Fall, 1966), pp. 136-140.

[2]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 3.

effort by identifying additional variables and their relationships so that they can be taken into account in managerial practice.[1]

Halpin has pointed out that since World War II administrators have become increasingly aware of the role of theory and have recognized the contribution that social science can make to the understanding of educational administration.[2] This study will determine to some extent the degree to which county leaders are familiar with certain social science research findings and the extent to which their basic managerial philosophy is consistent with certain theories of management developed from social science research findings.

Morrill and Morrill consider personnel plateauing, which is a leveling off in work performance, to be one of the more serious and far-reaching problems facing Extension and other educational institutions. Plateauing is, they believe, related to the type of administrative climate created and maintained.[3] If assumptions about the nature of

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[1]Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, ed. by Caroline McGregor and Warren G. Bennis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1967), p. 6.

[2]Andrew W. Halpin, "The Development of Theory in Educational Administration," in Administrative Theory in Education, ed. by Andrew W. Halpin (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967), p. 1.

[3]J. Glenn Morrill and Clive L. Morrill, "Personnel Plateauing and Motivation," Journal of Cooperative Extension, Vol. 5 (Spring, 1967), p. 15.

people influence the administrative climate a manager creates, then knowing what these assumptions are becomes of great importance in preparing county extension leaders to develop situations conducive to achieving optimum productivity.

The findings of this study will have theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, this study will be important for management theory in the examination of the relationship between assumptions held about the nature of people and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The relationship between the assumptions held about the nature of people and the manager's ability to perform the leadership function will also have theoretical significance, as will the relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and ability to perform the leadership function. This study will also test in an adult education organization certain constructs that have been developed largely with reference to business and industrial organizations.

This study should have practical significance from both a personnel selection and personnel training standpoint. If this study does show that certain assumptions held about people seem to be associated with superior performance of the leadership function, a measure of these assumptions could be one of the factors that should be

considered in the selection of county leaders and other administrators of the Cooperative Extension Service. Individuals holding assumptions not conducive to suitable performance of leadership functions could be encouraged to develop their careers along other lines, such as area or state specialists.

If this study is successful in measuring the extent to which county extension leaders possess philosophies of management based on social science research and these philosophies are found to be associated with performance of the leadership function, an in-service training program in social science concepts applied to management may be indicated.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework upon which this study was based is presented in this chapter in three sections. The first section summarizes the theory of motivation of Abraham Maslow. The second section presents the philosophy of management of Douglas McGregor which is based upon Maslow's motivation theory. The third section presents Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, which also draws heavily upon Maslow's motivation theory.

Maslow's Motivation Theory

The foundation for the theoretical framework for this study is the theory of motivation of Abraham Maslow. According to his theory, there are five sets of basic needs which are organized into a hierarchy. The lowest level of needs is that of physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, or sex. When all of the organism's needs are unsatisfied, its behavior is dominated by the physiological needs. As these become satisfied, the next higher set of needs, which are the safety needs, emerges. An individual operating on the safety level of needs is completely dominated by them,

just as one who is operating on the physiological level is dominated by them. When the safety needs have been satisfied, the individual moves to the next highest level which is that of love. Included in this group are affection and belongingness as well as love. At this level the individual will feel keenly the absence of friends, wife, or children. The next order of needs is that of esteem which includes a need for a stable, firmly based, and usually high evaluation of oneself, self respect, self esteem, and esteem of others. The highest order of needs emerges when the lower order ones have been satisfied. This is the need for self-actualization, which is the need for self-fulfillment or the tendency for one to become actualized in what he is potentially.[1]

McGregor's Philosophy of Management

Douglas McGregor believed that each managerial act is based upon assumptions, generalizations, and hypotheses. These are often implicit, even unconscious at times and, in some cases, conflicting. Nevertheless, they determine a manager's predictions that if he does A, then B will occur.[2] McGregor grouped these assumptions about the nature of man

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[1]A. H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, Vol. 50 (1943), pp. 370-396.

[2]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 6.

into two large categories, which for ease of discussion he labeled Theory X and Theory Y.[1] In a later work he called these "cosmologies." Cosmology is defined as the theory of the universe as a whole and the laws governing it, so managerial cosmology can be viewed as the manager's view of reality. He indicated that Theory X and Theory Y should be viewed as two rather different cosmologies, but that these are not the only two that can be held by managers.[2]

Theory X is the traditional view of direction and control. A basic assumption is that the average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can. Because of this, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives. A further assumption is that the average person prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all else.[3] In addition, man is believed to be by nature resistant to change, gullible, not very bright, and the ready dupe

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[1]Douglas McGregor, Leadership and Motivation, ed. by Warren G. Bennis and Edgar H. Schein (Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, 1966), pp. 3-20.

[2]Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, ed. by Caroline McGregor and Warren G. Bennis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1967), pp. 4, 79.

[3]McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 33-34.

of the charlatan and demagogue.[1] McGregor maintained that these are the assumptions upon which the bulk of the literature of management has been derived.[2]

Theory Y is based on assumptions which lead to the integration of individual and organizational goals. Theory Y assumes that the expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. Work is not inherently disliked by the average human being, and work can be a source of satisfaction or a source of punishment, depending upon controllable conditions. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means to make men work toward organizational objectives. Rather, man will exercise self-direction and self-control when he is committed to the objectives. The degree of commitment to objectives is believed to be a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant rewards are those of the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs. These rewards can be the direct products of effort which is directed toward organizational objectives.[3]

Another assumption of Theory Y is that the average human being under proper conditions learns not only to

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[1]McGregor, Leadership and Motivation, p. 6.

[2]McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, p. 35.

[3]Ibid., pp. 47-48.

accept responsibility but to seek it. The avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and the emphasis on security are not inherent human characteristics but are generally the result of experience. Another assumption of Theory Y is that the capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely distributed in the population. The intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only being partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life.[1]

The central principle of organization which can be derived from Theory X is that of direction and control through the exercise of authority. From Theory Y it is one of integration, or the creation of conditions such that members of the organization can best achieve their goals by directing their efforts toward success of the enterprise.[2]

It is important to point out that a basic assumption of both Theory X and Theory Y is: "Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise--money, materials, equipment, people--in the interest of economic ends."[3] McGregor goes on to point out that Theory Y does not involve the abdication of management, the absence of

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[1] Ibid., p. 48.

[2] Ibid., p. 49.

[3] McGregor, Leadership and Motivation, pp. 5, 15.

leadership, the lowering of standards, or any of the other characteristics usually associated with the "soft" approach to management.[1] In fact, he criticized the "soft" approach of achieving harmony through permissiveness and satisfying demands as often leading to abdication of management. While harmony may result, people take advantage of the soft approach by continually expecting more, but giving less and less.[2] Practices consistent with Theory Y include decentralization and delegation, job enlargement, and participative and consultative management.[3]

The influence of Maslow's need hierarchy on McGregor can be seen in his argument that most of the rewards that are usually provided for the worker for satisfying his needs through employment can be used only after he leaves his job. For example, wages cannot be spent on the job. The only contribution they make to satisfaction on the job is in terms of status differences as a result of wage differentials. Most fringe benefits such as overtime pay, shift differentials, vacations, health and medical benefits, annuities, and proceeds from stock purchase plans and profit sharing plans yield satisfaction only when the individual leaves the job. Since these are the major rewards provided

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[1] Ibid., p. 16.

[2] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

[3] Ibid., pp. 17-18.

by management, work is perceived by many wage earners as a form of punishment which is the price to be paid for the various kinds of satisfaction away from the job. Management has today provided fairly well for the satisfaction of physiological and safety needs. Since the standard of living in the United States is high, people do not suffer major deprivation of the physiological needs except during periods of severe unemployment, and social legislation cushions the shock here. Since the physiological and safety needs have been provided for, the motivational emphasis has shifted to social and egoistic needs (love, esteem, and self actualization in Maslow's terminology). Unless there are opportunities to satisfy these at work, people will be deprived, and their behavior will reflect this. For these reasons, a philosophy of management by direction and control is inadequate to motivate because the human needs on which this approach is based are relatively unimportant motivators of behavior in our society today.[1]

In these ideas one can see two quite different kinds of motivational relationships. Extrinsic rewards and punishments are by far the most recognized and used today. These exist as characteristics of the environment and have a relatively direct relationship to behavior. These include money, fringe benefits, promotion, praise, recognition, criticism,

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[1]McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 39-42.

and social acceptance and rejection. Intrinsic rewards are inherent in the activity itself with the rewar being the accomplishment of the goal. These cannot be directly controlled externally, but conditions of the environment can enhance or limit the opportunities of the individual to achieve them. These include achievements of knowledge or skill, of autonomy, of self-respect, of solutions to problems, and some of the rewards associated with genuine altruism such as giving love and help to others. It is McGregor's thesis that management has exploited rather fully the possibilities of influencing behavior through extrinsic rewards and punishments but has largely neglected intrinsic rewards.[1]

McGregor pointed out that Theory X and Theory Y should not be considered to be managerial strategies. Rather they are underlying beliefs about the nature of man that influence a manager to adopt one strategy or another. Depending upon the other characteristics of the manager's view of reality and upon the situation within which he finds himself, a manager holding the beliefs of Theory X could adopt a considerable array of strategies, some of which would typically be called "hard" and some "soft." The same would be true of Theory Y.[2]

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[1]McGregor, The Professional Manager, p. 7.

[2]Ibid., p. 79.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is based upon a similar concept about needs to that of Maslow. The human animal has two categories of needs. One stems from man's animal disposition, which is centered on the avoidance of loss of life, hunger, pain, sexual deprivation, and other primary drives, in addition to the numerous varieties of learned fears that become attached to these basic drives. The other segment of man's nature is the compelling urge to realize his own potentiality by continuous psychological growth.[1]

Herzberg tested this concept that man has two sets of needs of (1) his need as an animal to avoid pain and (2) of his need as a human being to grow psychologically in his classic study of job attitudes.[2] He and his associates asked 200 engineers and accountants to recall events that had made them feel exceptionally good about their jobs and events that had made them feel exceptionally bad. Five factors were found significantly more often in events that caused good feelings than in those which caused bad feelings.

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[1]Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 1966), p. 56.

[2]Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Bloch Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959).

These were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The factors associated significantly more often with events which caused the respondents to feel badly about their job were interpersonal relations with supervisors, interpersonal relations with peers, technical supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions, and personal life. These were the dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors. They were called hygiene factors because they perform similarly to hygiene which removes health hazards. These factors when improved serve to remove impediments to positive job attitudes but do little to actively improve them. In other words, improving these factors can prevent negative job attitudes but can seldom bring forth positive job attitudes.[1]

The factors which were found to result in job satisfaction seemed to describe man's relationship to what he does on his job. For example, when respondents reported good feelings about their jobs, they most frequently described factors related to the tasks of their jobs, to events that indicated to them that they were successful in the performance of their work, and to the possibility of professional growth. On the other hand, the factors which resulted in job dissatisfaction appeared to describe the worker's relationship to the context or environment in which

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[1] Ibid., pp. 31-119.

he did his work. For example, when respondents reported bad feelings about their jobs, they frequently described factors such as the working conditions, the persons with whom they worked, and practices and characteristics of the organization and its supervisors. Thus, one cluster of factors related to what a person does on his job and the other related to the situation in which he does it. Based on the analysis of the events by the respondents, Herzberg concluded that the hygiene factors tended to be associated with the need to avoid unpleasantness while the motivators tended to be associated with the need for growth or self-actualization. An important conclusion of the study was that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction were separate and distinct from the factors that led to job dissatisfaction.[1] According to the Herzberg theory the motivators are the five factors identified by the research plus possibility of growth. In addition to those hygiene factors identified in the research, the theory would place salary, interpersonal relations with subordinates, status, and job security in that category also. These are all factors which are associated with the context of the job rather than with the actual doing of the job.[2]

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[1]Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, pp. 74-77.

[2]Ibid., pp. 95-96.

Nearly all of the subjects studied by Herzberg et al. received job satisfaction from factors related to the job task, or in other words, from motivators. There were, however, some individuals who reported receiving job satisfaction solely from hygiene factors, which relate to some aspect of the job environment. These hygiene seekers are primarily attracted to things that usually serve only to prevent dissatisfaction rather than to serve as a source of positive feelings. Herzberg believes that these persons have not reached a stage of personality development at which self-actualizing needs are active. Since relief from job dissatisfaction by hygiene factors has only a temporary effect resulting in the necessity for frequent attention to the job environment, Herzberg feels that the hygiene seeker will be motivated in the direction of only temporary satisfaction. The hygiene seeker realizes little satisfaction from accomplishments and consequently shows little interest in the kind and quality of work which he does.[1]

Conclusions

The conceptualizations of McGregor and Herzberg, which appear to be logically related, form the theoretical framework for this study. Managers who subscribe to McGregor's Theory X appear to believe that man is operating

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[1] Ibid., pp. 71-91.

at a relatively low level on Maslow's need hierarchy. The assumptions that man must be pushed to get work out of him, that he prefers not to have responsibility, and that man has little ambition indicate a belief in the effectiveness of economic incentives as motivators. These economic incentives are the type of factors which Herzberg calls hygiene factors. When one examines Theory Y, he sees an emphasis on higher order needs, particularly those of esteem and self-actualization. Likewise, Herzberg's motivator seekers are operating at this level. Thus, a logical conclusion would be that motivator seekers will tend to subscribe to Theory Y and hygiene seekers to Theory X. The source of satisfaction then should be related to the assumptions held about the nature of people.

Another conclusion is that motivator seekers will find more lasting job satisfaction through motivator factors than will the short term hygiene seekers through hygiene factors. Thus, one would expect motivator seekers to be superior to hygiene seekers in job performance since the motivator seekers should tend to be motivated at a higher level and for a longer period of time. Still another conclusion one could derive is that managers who subscribe to Theory Y should encourage members of their staff to use their initiative and should encourage freedom of action, which should result in a high level of job satisfaction by staff

members. If this results in increased motivation as Herzberg suggests, the performance of the county staff can be expected to be at a high level. This should result in a higher rating on performance of the leadership function for the county extension leader. Thus, it is expected that sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and assumptions held about the nature of people are associated with ability to perform the leadership function.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The ideas of both McGregor and Herzberg appear to be well grounded in the human relations school of management. This school evolved as attention began to be directed to the importance of human factors in production. Davis has defined human relations as ". . . motivating people in organizations to develop teamwork which effectively fulfills their needs and achieves organizational objectives."[1] Various writers have contributed their ideas about the most effective way of accomplishing the integration of individual needs with organizational objectives as a means of stimulating motivation of the workers. Many empirical research studies have also been conducted in the area of goal integration, job enrichment, and job satisfaction. This review of literature will concentrate first on the theoretical writings, and finally empirical research studies will be reviewed.

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[1]Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 5.

Theoretical Writings

McGregor stressed the importance of integration of the goals of the individual workers with the objectives of the organization. The first section of this review of theoretical writings will trace the historical development of this idea. Other writers have expressed ideas quite similar to those of McGregor and Herzberg while others have expanded on them. The second section reviews these writings.

Historical Development

Davis feels that the human relations school of management can trace its beginning to Robert Owen, a young Welsh factory owner in the early 1800's. Owen was one of the first to emphasize human needs of employees, refusing to employ children and improving the working conditions of his employees.[1]

William G. Scott believes that the idea of "mutuality of interests" between employees and employers can be traced to the writings of Charles Babbage[2] and Andrew Ure[3] in the 1830's. Both expressed the idea that the welfare of

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[1] Ibid., p. 8.

[2] Charles Babbage, On Economy of Machinery and Manufacturers (London: Charles Knight, 1832).

[3] Andrew Ure, The Philosophy of Manufacturers (London: Charles Knight, 1835).

the worker and the employer was allied.[1]

Another early writer who expressed this idea was Frederick W. Taylor, writing in the early 1900's. He wrote: "The principal object of management should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee."[2] While admitting that a majority of both managers and workers probably believed that the interests of the two were necessarily antagonistic, Taylor advanced the idea that the very foundation of scientific management was the firm conviction that the true interests of the two were one and the same. Prosperity for the employer could not exist through a long period of time unless it was accompanied by prosperity for the employee and vice versa.[3] In addition to such special incentives as promotions, higher wages, shorter hours, and better working conditions, Taylor urged managers to accompany this with personal consideration for and friendly contact with their workmen.[4] Taylor is generally known as

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[1]William G. Scott, Organization Theory: A Behavioral Analysis of Management (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), pp. 21-22.

[2]Frederick Winslow Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1967, Original edition: Harper & Row, 1913), p. 9.

[3]Ibid., p. 10.

[4]Ibid., pp. 33-34.

the "father of scientific management."[1] While Taylor did not intend that it should, scientific management has become associated with industrial methods which popularly became the symbol of the ultimate in dehumanization in industry.[2] His basic ideas, however, have been recognized as being consistent with the ideas of integration of goals of the human relations school. Keith Davis believes that the changes that Taylor caused in management paved the way for subsequent changes in human relations. He was one of the first to call attention to people in the work situation as important factors in the quest for efficiency in production.[3] Mee saw in Taylor's principle of mutuality of interests of employers and employees the same ideas expressed by writers many years later.[4]

Elton Mayo is generally credited with founding the human relations movement in management. Several of his studies, including the famous Hawthorne Experiment at Western Electric, contributed significantly to this movement.[5]

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[1]Dan Voich, Jr. and Daniel A. Wren, Principles of Management (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1968), p. 7.

[2]Scott, p. 43.

[3]Davis, p. 8.

[4]John Franklin Mee, "A History of Twentieth Century Management Thought" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1959), p. 39.

[5]Saul W. Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1963), pp. 19-20.

Mayo believed that many managers assumed that society was comprised of a horde or mob of unorganized individuals whose only concern was for self-preservation and self-interest. It appeared to him that managers operated as if they assumed that people were primarily dominated by physiological and security needs and that they wanted to make as much money as they could for as little work as possible. Mayo called this assumption the "Rabble Hypothesis" and deplored the authoritarian, task-oriented management practices it created.[1] Hersey and Blanchard believe that Mayo had great influence upon the development of Theory X and Theory Y by McGregor.[2]

Charles P. McCormick originated the idea of the junior board of directors. This system of participative management permitted junior executives to originate ideas and work out the problems and submit them to the senior board for approval. McCormick, as president, called upon both the senior and junior boards to give him the benefit of their experience in assisting him to manage the business. McCormick praised this system for the development of ideas and as a training technique for junior executives. Junior executives were able to acquaint themselves with many of the

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[1]George Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Division of Research, Harvard Business School, 1933), pp. 34-56.

[2]Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 40.

problems of the business outside their own departments.[1]

William B. Given, Jr., identified two extremes of management philosophy and practice. Under "top-down" management the head of the business does practically all of the thinking and planning and issues orders to his subordinates. The current of initiative runs from top down and the head of the business demands blind obedience. On the other hand, with "bottom-up" management the head of the business tries to release the thinking and encourages the initiative of those under him so that ideas and impetus flows upward from the bottom. The chief executive makes clear the objectives and charts the course of the organization. He makes many suggestions but issues few orders. Following this policy he adds the ability and initiative of hundreds or thousands to his own.[2]

Chester I. Barnard emphasized the importance of "cooperation" in organizations. To achieve this it was the function of the executive to satisfy the requirements for efficiency (relationships with personnel) and for effectiveness (attaining objectives of the organization).[3] Barnard

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[1]Charles P. McCormick, Multiple Management (Clinton, S. C.: Jacobs Press, 1938), pp. 1-49.

[2]William B. Given, Jr., Bottom-Up Management (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949), pp. 3-5.

[3]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp. 19-21.

had only limited confidence in material incentives as motivators. While he felt that they must be present where a large part of an individual's time was devoted to the organization, he felt that their unaided power to motivate was exceedingly limited in most men. They constituted weak incentives when used beyond the level of bare physiological necessities.[1]

Mary Parker Follett called for depersonalizing of orders so that the situation dictated the action to be followed.[2] She also deplored the concept of "power-over" where some person or group held power over some other person or group but encouraged the development of the concept of "power-with" which is ". . . a jointly developed power, a co-active, not a coercive power."[3] She saw employee representation in the decision making of the organization as one method of developing the ideas that the situation controls action and of providing functional control in line with the concept of power-with.[4]

James F. Lincoln believed that man has latent abilities that can be developed through the proper application

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[1] Ibid., pp. 142-143.

[2] Mary Parker Follett, Dynamic Administration, ed. by Henry C. Metcalf and L. Urwick (New York: Harper & Row, 1940), pp. 58-59.

[3] Ibid., p. 101.

[4] Ibid., pp. 174-175.

of incentives. He believed that up to four times present production could be expected. This would come from increased skill, increased imagination, and the elimination of waste and reduction of overhead. With incentive management the desire to produce at top speed and accuracy is inherent in all concerned, thus reducing the necessity for foremen, inspectors, and clerks. According to Lincoln, increased profits from such savings should be distributed to the consumer, the worker, and finally to management.[1] The Lincoln Electric Company has been operated for a number of years with this plan. Impressive data are presented by Lincoln to show that products manufactured by Lincoln Electric Company are lower priced than competitive products, but the average compensation per worker has been significantly higher than in other manufacturing companies since the plan was installed. During some years Lincoln Electric Company employees received twice the compensation that workers in other companies received.[2]

McGregor identified the Scanlon Plan as one of the methods of carrying out Theory Y.[3] Developed by Joseph

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[1]James F. Lincoln, Incentive Management (Cleveland, Ohio: The Lincoln Electric Company, 1951), pp. 3-15.

[2]Ibid., pp. 251-252.

[3]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 110.

Scanlon, this plan is a philosophy of management which encourages teamwork among all of the members of the organization to accomplish the objectives of the organization.[1] McGregor explained how the plan operates. The first important feature is that there is a means of sharing the economic gains from improvements in organizational performance. It is not a profit sharing plan, but rather it is a unique kind of cost-reduction sharing. After a careful study of the company's financial records has been made, a ratio between the total manpower costs of the organization and a measure of output is established. Improvement in this ratio represents an overall economic gain for the organization. A portion of the resultant savings is paid to participants in the plan on a monthly basis as a percentage of their base wages or salaries. Normally, all members of the organization except possibly the very top management group participate in this economic reward. Such a reward promotes collaboration within an interdependent system and minimizes competition within the organization and maximizes it with other firms in the industry. The distinguishing feature of the Scanlon Plan is the coupling of this economic incentive with a second feature which provides each member an

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[1]Frederick G. Lesieur, "What the Plan Isn't and What It Is," in The Scanlon Plan, ed. by Frederick G. Lesieur (Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1958), pp. 34-38.

opportunity to contribute his brains and ingenuity as well as his physical effort to the improvement of the effectiveness of the organization. This feature operates through a series of committees whose purpose is to receive, discuss, and evaluate every means that anyone can think of for improving the ratio, and to put those which are considered workable into effect.[1]

Contemporary Ideas in Human Relations

A number of writers have commented on the ideas of McGregor. For example, Keith Davis pointed out that McGregor made it clear that a shallow approach to human relations was inadequate. It was McGregor's notion that human relations is not being nice to people while continuing the conventional autocratic approach, but that managers must change to a whole new theory of working with people.[2] Sheldon A. Davis sees in McGregor's ideas about organizational development "a very real toughness." In dealing with each other we will be open, direct, and explicit. Our feelings will be available to each other, and we will try to problem-solve rather than be defensive. It is Davis' opinion that these values have in them a very

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[1]McGregor, pp. 110-123.

[2]Davis, p. 11.

tough way of living, not a soft way.[1]

Abraham Maslow identified the assumptions underlying Eupsychian Management and saw them as being consistent with McGregor's Theory Y. Eupsychia was defined as ". . . the culture that would be generated by 1,000 self-actualizing people on some sheltered island where they would not be interfered with."[2] Eupsychian management assumes that everyone is to be trusted and that everyone is to be informed as completely as possible of as many facts and truths as possible. All of the people in the organization have the impulse to achieve and there is no dominance-subordination hierarchy in the authoritarian sense. Everyone will have the same ultimate objectives and will identify with them no matter where they are in the organization or hierarchy. There is good will among all of the members of the organization rather than rivalry or jealousy. The people in eupsychian plants are not fixated at the safety-need level but there is an active trend toward self-actualization. Everyone can enjoy good teamwork, friendship, group spirit, belongingness, and group love. Hostility is primarily

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[1]Sheldon A. Davis, "An Organic Problem-Solving Method of Organizational Change," in The Planning of Change, ed. by Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin (2nd ed.; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969), p. 358.

[2]Abraham H. Maslow, Eupsychian Management (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., and The Dorsey Press, 1965), p. xi.

reactive rather than character-based. People are improvable and everyone prefers to feel important, needed, useful, successful, proud, and respected. Everyone dislikes fearing anyone. To be a prime mover rather than a passive helper is preferred by everyone. Working is preferred to being idle. Meaningful work is preferred to meaningless work. Everyone, especially the more developed persons, prefers responsibility to dependency and passivity and would rather be interested than bored.[1]

Small group research has shown that group life is characterized by a task aspect and by a social aspect.[2] In other words, there is a role of helping move the group to accomplishing its work and another role of helping the group maintain relationships among its members that will ensure that the group maintains itself. Using a somewhat similar framework, Blake and Mouton have developed the thesis that managerial behavior is determined in large part by the degree of concern that a manager has for people and for production. They have constructed what they call "the managerial grid," which consists of two axes. One is labeled "concern for production," and the other is labeled "concern for people." Each axis is divided into nine segments, thus

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[1] Ibid., pp. 15-33.

[2] Michael S. Olmsted, The Small Group (New York: Random House, 1959), pp. 127-128.

providing 81 hypothetical locations on the grid. The authors, however, treat only what they call the five ideal types. The 1,9 manager is characterized by a low concern for production and a high concern for people. The 1,1 has little concern for either people or for production. The 9,1 manager combines a high concern for production with a low concern for people. The 5,5 manager has an intermediate concern for both. Finally, the 9,9 manager combines a maximum concern for both people and production.[1] These ideas are consistent with those of McGregor. The 9,1 managerial style seems to fit the assumptions of Theory X while the 9,9 manager with his concern with meshing the individual goals of the worker with the organizational goals fits easily into the assumptions of Theory Y.

Chris Arygris has written that there is a basic incongruency between the needs of a mature personality and the requirements of a formal organization. When the principles of a formal organization as ideally defined are used, employees will tend to work in an environment that is more congruent with the needs of infants than with those of adults. The employees are provided minimal control over their workaday world and are expected to be passive, dependent, and subordinate. They are expected to have a short

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[1]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964).

time perspective and are induced to perfect and value the frequent use of relatively shallow abilities. Finally, they are expected to work under conditions which lead to psychological failure.[1]

Argyris' position is that informal adaptive behavior is begun because it helps reduce the basic causes of conflict, frustration, and failure. The apparently incongruent behavior by employees coerced by the informal organization is viewed as being necessary if healthy individuals are to maintain a minimum level of health and the formal organization is to obtain optimum expression of its demands. In other words, without the informal organization the employee would soon be so full of pent-up tension that he would lose his human efficiency. Apparently, many managers diagnose the informal organization as "bad" and attempt to do away with it. These attempts only strengthen it, Argyris believes.[2] He suggested that management should attempt to reduce the feelings of dependence, submissiveness, subordination, and lack of use of one's abilities by the use of practices such as job and role enlargement, "employee-centered" and "reality-centered" leadership.[3] By employee-centered leadership, Argyris means changing authoritarian

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[1]Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 66.

[2]Ibid., pp. 200-231.

[3]Ibid., p. 232.

leadership to more democratic or participative.[1] Reality-centered leadership means that the leader should first diagnose what reality is and then use a leadership pattern to fit it.[2]

Saul W. Gellerman believes that the tightly controlled organization is obsolete and that management will move toward greater flexibility and individual responsibility because these are more efficient principles of organization than the traditional chain of command. Decentralization, delegation, and management development are already signaling the end of the tightly controlled organization.[3] He goes on to point out that it is assumed that work is necessarily a rather dull pastime and that most people would dislike it if it weren't. Therefore, it is further assumed that the way to get work from the worker is to pay him enough so that he can divert himself after work. Hobbies, vacations, and loafing are the ultimate goals to which people are expected to strive. Gellerman argues that much of what is unprofitable and unhealthy in industry is derived from the fact that most people are considerably nobler than these assumptions would tend to imply.[4] "Doing a

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[1] Ibid., p. 188.

[2] Ibid., p. 207.

[3] Gellerman, p. 95.

[4] Ibid., p. 173.

difficult job well is more rewarding experience for our mythical 'average' employee than a life of serene inactivity."[1] The paradox of modern industrial motivation, according to Gellerman, is that while material needs are being satisfied and even satiated, the lack of intangible rewards has become the newest and perhaps greatest barrier to productivity.[2] Gellerman is convinced that authoritarian management works well only in organizations which are not subject to change and which have mastered their technologies to a degree that there is little room for improvement. In other organizations the result is the loss of technical insights and ingenuity of workers for they will either become dependent or frustrated under authoritarian management.[3]

Rensis Likert developed the principle of supportive relationships. This principle is based upon the fact that high producing managers appear to have discovered that motivational forces acting upon an individual in an organization are more likely to be positive when the interactions between himself and others in the organization tend to convey to him a feeling of support and recognition for his importance and worth as a person.[4] Likert stated the principle

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[1] Ibid. [2] Ibid., p. 174.

[3] Saul W. Gellerman, Management by Motivation (New York: American Management Association, 1968), pp. 221-222.

[4] Rensis Likert, "An Integrative Principle and an Overview," in People and Productivity, ed. by Robert A. Sutermeister (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969), p. 485.

of supportive relationships as follows:

> The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.[1]

Warren G. Bennis is critical of the bureaucracy as a form of organization. He does not believe that the bureaucracy adequately allows for personal growth and development of mature personalities. It develops conformity, and its systems of control and authority are outdated. It fails to take into account the informal organization and does not possess adequate means for resolving differences and conflicts among ranks and among functional groups.[2] Bennis believes that the bureaucracy is becoming less and less effective and that new shapes, patterns, and models of organizations are emerging which promise to make drastic changes in the conduct of the corporation and managerial practices in general. He expects the bureaucracy to end within 25 to 50 years with new social systems arising to better cope with modern demands.[3] These new organizations will develop in the form of democracies and participants in

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Warren G. Bennis, Changing Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 6.

[3] Ibid., p. 4.

them will be called upon to use their minds more than at any previous point in history. Fantasy and imagination will be legitimized and social structure will no longer be instruments of repression.[1]

Katz believes that the development of large-scale production with its increasing use of machines and its use of machine-like institutionalization of the work process has apparently undermined three possible sources of work satisfaction. First, the skill level of many jobs has been greatly reduced so that intricate and complex tasks are seldom required of the worker. The variety of operations and tasks required has also greatly diminished. Secondly, the development of machine production has caused a movement toward extreme specialization of function so that the worker is left with both a low-level-skill job and one that is repetitive and monotonous. In the third place, the job has been set up with standardized procedures so that the worker has little chance to do it his own way. He has been left only a minimum of decision about the work process.[2]

Katz and Kahn have identified four types of motivational patterns in organizations. The first is legal

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[1] Ibid., pp. 14-32.

[2] Daniel Katz, "Satisfactions and Deprivations of Industrial Life," in Industrial Conflict, ed. by Arthur Kornhauser, Robert Dubin, and Arthur M. Ross (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), p. 90.

compliance, or the acceptance of role prescriptions and organizational directives because of their legitimacy. The group member obeys the rules because they are based on legitimate sources of authority and because they are enforced by legal sanctions. Motivation bears no relation to the activity itself. The second type is one of instrumental satisfaction, which is the linking of rewards to desired behaviors with the expectation that as rewards increase, the motivation for performance increases. The piece-rate system in industry is an example of this type. The third type is that of self-expression where satisfactions are derived directly from performance of the role. For example, the scientist derives gratification from scientific inquiry. The fourth type is internalized values. The goals of the group become incorporated as part of the individual's value system, so that the individual is activated toward the goals of the group because these goals represent his own personal values and are appropriate to his own self concept.[1]

Keith Davis has listed four models of organizational behavior which have appeared over the past 100 years. The autocratic model is based on power. Management assumes that employees are passive and even resistant to organizational needs. Management does the thinking, and employees obey

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[1]Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 340-346.

the orders. Relatively low wages are provided, and minimum performance is given since workers are not motivated to give more than that. Davis compared the autocratic model with McGregor's Theory X. The custodial model in its worst form is known as employer paternalism. This approach serves the employee's maintenance needs by providing various fringe benefits. This approach results in passive ccoperation by the employee but does not strongly motivate him. The supportive model establishes a manager in the primary role of psychological support of his employees at work, rather than in a primary role of economic support as in the custodial model or in a position of power over his employees in the autocratic model. The supportive model depends upon leadership instead of power or economic resources. The assumption by the leader is that employees are not by nature resistant to organizational needs, but that they will take the responsibility to develop a drive to contribute and to improve themselves. An employee with a supportive leader is motivated to work toward organizational objectives as a means of achievement of his own goals. This model is compared with McGregor's Theory Y. The collegial model is still evolving. It readily adapts to the flexible intellectual environment of scientific and professional organizations. Working in substantially unprogrammed activities requiring effective teamwork, employees respond well to the autonomy which the collegial model permits. It depends upon management's

building a feeling of mutual contribution among participants in the organization. The managerial orientation is toward teamwork to provide an integration of all contributions. The employee response is responsibility, and he produces quality work because he feels inside himself the desire to do so. In this kind of environment the employee normally feels some degree of fulfillment and self-realization.[1]

Davis believes that these models represent a historical evolution of management thought. The autocratic model predominated in management about 75 years ago. In the 1920's and 1930's it began to yield to the custodial model. More recently, the supportive model is gaining approval. Some advanced organizations are experimenting with the collegial model.[2] He also sees these organizational types as corresponding to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, with new models of organizations developing to serve higher needs that have become prominent at that time. The custodial model is seen as an effort to serve man's second-level security needs. It moved one step above the autocratic model which was reasonably serving man's subsistence needs.

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[1]Keith Davis, "Evolving Models of Organizational Behavior," in Human Relations and Organizational Behavior: Readings and Comments," ed. by Keith Davis and William G. Scott (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969), pp. 30-37.

[2]Ibid., p. 30.

Similarly, the supportive model is an effort to serve employee's higher level needs such as affiliation and esteem. The collegial model is a movement toward service of man's need for self-actualization.[1]

Strauss believes that the main thrust of the human relations movement over the past 20 years has been toward power equalization, or the reduction in the power and status differential between supervisors and subordinates. He has identified our main approaches in accomplishing this. The first approach is called hygenic supervision and is similar to Davis' custodial model. This approach utilizes methods classified as hygenic by Herzberg. It includes the provision of adequate wages and fringe benefits. It is paternalistic in that the boss still retains power to make decisions and employees are treated essentially as children. The second approach of delegation expands the decision making power of subordinates. They are permitted to determine means of reaching the goals of the organization. Detailed instructions are minimized and subordinates are supervised by results. This is seen in job enlargement when applied to workers and in decentralization when applied to management. This approach encourages competition rather than cooperation and emphasizes immediate measurable results rather than significant but immeasurable intangibles such as morale, good

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[1]Ibid., p. 38.

will, and employee development. Participation is the third approach. This is a means of permitting employees to participate in the decision making process, this enlisting individual creativity and enthusiasm. It has been criticized as being inconsistent, insincere, and ineffective since autocratic and manipulative methods are sometimes used to secure participation. The fourth approach of inducing behavior and attitude changes places emphasis on changing people rather than structure using such techniques as sensitivity training.[1]

Summary

The human relations school of management has emphasized fulfilling the needs of the individual workers while achieving the goals of the organization. This section has traced the development of this concept in management from early writers who urged that some consideration be given to the worker to the present emphasis through such methods as job enlargement, participative management, delegation, decentralization, and cost-reduction sharing. Contemporary writers are calling for an end to autocratic methods in organizations and the striving toward creating an atmosphere

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[1]George Strauss, "Some Notes on Power Equalization," in The Social Science of Organizations, ed. by Harold J. Leavitt (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), pp. 41-44.

of trust between co-workers and an atmosphere in which the ideas of each individual member of the organization are solicited.

Empirical Studies

The literature contains numerous studies relating to the area of motivation of the worker. A sampling of these studies which appear to have tested portions of the McGregor and the Herzberg theories are reviewed here. McGregor's writings appear to be more closely concerned with the area of participative management, job enrichment, and other methods of helping workers to meet their own needs while reaching the goals of the organization. Herzberg's studies have primarily been in the area of job attitudes and job satisfaction. This review will be divided into two sections with the first concentrating on goal integration and the second on job satisfaction.

Goal Integration

Bartlett attempted to change the style of leadership of a company from Theory X to Theory Y. A training program for the company's managers was set up for two meetings of two hours length each week for four weeks on company time. The results indicated that a company's leadership style could be changed. This program created a climate of trust, characterized by a concern for the individual's right to be himself, to take independent action, and to admit mistakes

without fear of retribution. This resulted in an improvement in value of products shipped of 26.6 per cent for the first three months and of 128 per cent for the eight months after the program. Absenteeism was reduced from 8.5 per cent of payroll hours to 4.9 per cent for the first 30 days and to half of this for the next 30 days. Turnover was reduced by 40 per cent in the first three month period and by another 10 per cent over the next eight months. Improvements in quality of manufacturing included an average scrap reduction of 25 per cent, a decrease in rework of 26 per cent, a reduction in delay time for inspection of 50 per cent, and a drop in returns from customers by 77 per cent.[1]

Kuriloff reported on the success of the Theory Y approach used by Non-Linear Systems, Inc., of Del Mar, California. Instead of an assembly line, a team approach was used. Each team completely assembled the product and tested it. The teams were free to work out their own procedures. This permitted a worker to specialize or to work at different jobs on different days as the teams saw fit. The annual absentee rate at Non-Linear Systems was about one-half of that of other plants in the community. Productivity as measured in man hours per instrument was reported to be 30 per cent better than it was at any other point in

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[1]Alton C. Bartlett, "Changing Behavior as a Means to Increased Efficiency," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 3, No. 3 (1967), pp. 381-403.

the company's history. Customer complaints were 70 per cent below that of three years previously.[1] Inspectors were eliminated completely, and rejects became practically non-existent.[2]

The 9,1 managerial style of Blake and Mouton[3] is similar to McGregor's Theory X while the 9,9 style fits into the assumptions of Theory Y. A study of the managerial styles of 716 managers in one of America's largest plants was reported by Blake and Mouton. The five managerial styles of each individual were ranked from one to five with 1 being the most typical style and 5 the least typical style of the individual. A Managerial Achievement Quotient (MAQ) was determined for each manager. This was computed by using a formula which combined level in the company with age of the individual. The most dominant style of all the managers was 5,5 followed by 9,9 and 9,1 in that order. However, when MAQ was controlled for, the order for the group high in MAQ was: 9,9; 5,5; 9,1; 1,9; and 1,1. The group low in MAQ ranked 5,5; 9,9; 9,1; 1,9; and 1,1. As the MAQ increased, 9,9 became progressively more prominent as the first theory.

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[1]Arthur H. Kuriloff, "An Experiment in Management: Putting Theory Y to the Test," Personnel, Vol. 40 (November-December, 1963), pp. 8-17.

[2]Thomas R. Brooks, "Can Employees 'Manage' Themselves?" Dun's Review and Modern Industry, Vol. 86 (November, 1965), p. 60.

[3]See this chapter, pp. 38-39.

Among MAQ's in the 90 and above category (high group), 9,9 was almost universally the dominant theory.[1]

Blake et al. reported on an attempt at organization development using the Managerial Grid approach to more effective work relationships. The study took place in a large plant employing 4,000 workers of which 800 were managers and technical staff personnel. These 800 individuals were all exposed to a Managerial Grid training program beginning late in 1962. By the summer of 1963 all had completed Phase 1 of the program. There were significant increases in productivity and profits in 1963. Total production rose somewhat with fewer employees while profits more than doubled. Productivity as measured by total production divided by number of employees increased in 1963 over 26 per cent over 1962 while controllable costs were decreasing by over 8 per cent. There was evidence that meetings were being held more frequently, the criteria for management appraisals were being changed, and transfers within the plant and to other parts of the organization were increasing. An anonymous questionnaire survey of each manager indicated that there were perceived improvements occurring in boss-subordinate relationships, relationships within departments, and relationships between work groups.[2]

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[1]Blake and Mouton, pp. 227-233.

[2]Robert R. Blake, Jane S. Mouton, Louis B. Barnes, and Larry B. Greiner, "Breakthrough in Organization Development," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 42 (November-December, 1964), pp. 133-155.

Vroom found that industrial workers in an oil refinery and in an electronics manufacturing company who were ego-involved in their jobs were rated higher in job performance than were those who were not ego-involved.[1] Morse and Reimer found that increasing the amount of decision making for the rank and file member of an organization resulted in additional job satisfaction while decreasing decision making resulted in a decreased job satisfaction.[2] In an investigation of turnover and morale among female telephone operators and service representatives of Michigan Bell Telephone Company in three different cities, Wickert found that turnover was significantly related to the feelings by these workers of ego involvement in the day-to-day operations of the company. This feeling of ego-involvement was the main difference between those staying and those leaving the job. Specifically, those staying said that they had a chance to make decisions on the job and felt they were making an important contribution to the success of the company.[3]

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[1]Victor H. Vroom, "Ego-Involvement, Job Satisfaction, and Job Performance," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 15 (1962), p. 176.

[2]Nancy C. Morse and Everette Reimer, "The Experimental Change of a Major Organizational Variable," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 52 (1956), pp. 126-127.

[3]Frederic R. Wickert, "Turnover and Employees' Feelings of Ego-Involvement in the Day-to-Day Operations of a Company," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 4 (1951), pp. 185-187.

Trist et al. studied two systems of mining coal. The conventional longwall system featured a formal division of labor with specialized tasks carried out by a number of groups of varying sizes. Coordination and control was provided entirely from the outside of the group by management. The composite longwall system featured a plan where the team assumed full responsibility for allocating men to shifts and tasks. The composite organization was found to possess characteristics more conducive than the conventional to productive effectiveness, low cost, work satisfaction, good relations, and social health.[1]

Coch and French studied the effects of employee participation in making changes in production methods. Two forms of participation were used. In one group, representatives of the group participated in a workshop where the changes were designed. In two other small groups all group members participated. A control group was set up where the changes were installed following the traditional methods. In the first group, production reached the level that it was prior to the change in about 14 days. The employees were cooperative and none quit during the first 40 days. In the two groups where there was full participation, the recovery was faster than in the first group. Cooperation

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[1]E. L. Trist, G. W. Higgin, H. Murray, and A. B. Pollock, Organizational Choice (London: Travistock Publications, 1963), pp. 290-291.

with supervisors was good and none of the workers quit during the first 40 days and reached a level of production 14 per cent above the level at the beginning of the study. In the control group production remained far below that of the other two treatments and 17 per cent of the members quit during the first 40 days. Resistance developed, aggression was expressed, and grievances filed about the piece rate. This control group was broken up and reassigned to other groups. After two and one-half months they were formed into a work group again with the purpose of conducting a second experiment in changing methods of production. Under the total participation treatment, this group recovered rapidly to their previous rating and continued to increase to a new level of production with no aggression or turnover for the first 19 days.[1]

Kahn reported on a number of studies done at the University of Michigan relating to productivity and job satisfaction. These studies indicate that productivity and job satisfaction do not necessarily go together. A study of supervision practices of office workers in an insurance company showed that supervisors of high producing sections spent more time in actual supervisory activities and less time in performing tasks similar to those of their

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[1] Lester Coch and John R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, Vol. 1, No. 4 (1948), pp. 512-532.

subordinates. They supervised less closely and were themselves less closely supervised. They appeared to be more employee-centered in their attitudes. Employees in high producing sections were more likely to feel that their supervisors would defend their interests rather than those of management, should a choice be necessary.[1]

In a study of railroad maintenance of way workers, Kahn again reported that the effective foreman was able to differentiate his role from the role of the non-supervisory employee and spent more time planning the work, performing highly skilled tasks, and more time in actual supervision. Again these high producing supervisors showed greater sensitivity to the needs of their employees, being more interested in the men's off-the-job problems, more helpful in training them for better jobs, and more constructive and less punishing when mistakes were made.[2]

Another study in a farm equipment manufacturing company tended to support the previous two studies. However, in addition to finding that high producing employees tended to feel that their supervisors were interested in them, they reported that they were also interested in producing. This called for a reinterpretation of the previous

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[1]Robert L. Kahn, "Productivity and Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 13 (Autumn, 1960), pp. 275-277.

[2]Ibid., pp. 278-279.

conclusion that supervisors were interested in either employee or production. Rather, now the conclusion appeared to be tenable that effective supervisors were interested in both. The foremen who had high producing sections tended to report that their supervisors felt that production was one of the most important things but not the most important thing. On the other hand, foremen of lower producing sections were more likely to report that their supervisors overemphasized achievement of high production by acting as if it were the most important thing, or underemphasized it by acting as if it were not among the important things.[1]

Argyle et al. reported a study of 90 foremen in eight British factories that manufactured electrical equipment. The foremen in charge of high producing sections were significantly more democratic and less punitive than the comparable foremen of low producing sections. Sections with democratic supervisors tended to have lower rates of absenteeism.[2]

Likert reported on a study of managers in charge of 31 geographically separated stations which performed similar duties in a company which operates nationally. The managers' attitudes toward men were secured and related to productivity

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[1] Ibid., pp. 281-283.

[2] Michael Argyle, Godfrey Gardner, and Frank Cioffi, "Supervisory Methods Related to Productivity, Absenteeism, and Labour Turnover," Human Relations, Vol. 11 (1958), pp. 23-35.

of the station. Those managers who had a favorable attitude toward men achieved significantly higher performance than did those managers who had an unfavorable score. Managers who had a supportive attitude toward men and tried to build them into well-knit groups obtained appreciably higher productivity than did managers who had a threatening attitude and relied more on man-to-man patterns of supervision.[1] Guest reported that an experiment in enlarging the content of the job in an IBM plant resulted in a sharp reduction in rejects, accidents, and absences. Costs were lowered in spite of a ten per cent increase in wages which came about as a result of increased responsibility.[2]

Studies in leadership at Ohio State University developed a Scale to measure leaders' behavior using concepts of "consideration" and "initiating structure." Halpin has defined these concepts. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in establishing well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior which indicates friendship, mutual trust, respect,

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[1]Rensis Likert, "An Emerging Theory of Organization, Leadership, and Management," in Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior, ed. by Luigi Petrullo and Bernard M. Bass (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961), pp. 299-300.

[2]R. H. Guest, "Job Enlargement--A Revolution in Job Design," Personnel Administration, Vol. 20, No. 2 (1957), p. 10.

and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff.[1] In summarizing several of the studies using initiating structure and consideration, Halpin indicated that the most effective leaders were those who were high on both initiating structure and consideration. The most ineffective ones were those low on both, while those who were high on initiating structure and low on consideration were also weak being so intent upon getting the job done that they forgot that they were dealing with human beings. Also, those who were low on initiating structure and high on consideration were weak because emphasis on consideration added little to effective performance unless it was accompanied by a necessary minimum of initiating structure.[2]

Summary

Studies of efforts to install methods of management consistent with Theory Y have generally indicated that such methods could lead to increased production, higher quality production, and more highly satisfied workers. Leadership studies have indicated that the most successful leaders emphasize the importance of considering the needs of the individual worker while continuing to place importance upon a high level of production.

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[1] Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 86.

[2] Ibid., pp. 93-99.

Job Satisfaction

This section will be concerned with empirical studies which have examined attitudes toward jobs and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Sub-topics of this section will include an examination of general studies of job satisfaction, studies using the Herzberg critical incident technique, and studies which have tried to replicate the findings of Herzberg using other methods.

General Studies

One of the first studies of job attitudes was included in the famous Hawthorne studies in the late 1920's and early 1930's. Certain factors were found to lead to favorable attitudes on the part of the employees while others resulted in negative ones. Generally, those factors relating to employee relations policies resulted in favorable attitudes while those relating to plant and technical conditions of work resulted in poor attitudes. Pay, advancement, and supervision seemed to result in about equal favorable and unfavorable attitudes. It is interesting that Roethlisberger and Dickson commented that those factors which resulted in negative attitudes appeared to be those things about work which are noticed only when they are poor.[1] This

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[1]F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939), pp. 246-249.

observation is consistent with Herzberg's theory that hygiene factors can prevent job dissatisfaction but can seldom be a source of job satisfaction.

Robert Hoppock was another early investigator of employee satisfaction. In reviewing 32 studies done by other investigators, he found that two-thirds of the studies found less than one-third of the workers to be dissatisfied.[1] In his own study of all the employed adults (88 per cent of them responded) in Hope, Pennsylvania, Hoppock found that 15 per cent did not like their jobs, 15 per cent felt satisfied with their job less than half of the time, 24 per cent would have liked to change both their jobs and their occupations, and 16 per cent disliked their jobs more than they thought other people disliked theirs. Nine per cent were indifferent with the remainder indicating various degrees of satisfaction.[2] In another study Hoppock compared the extreme groups of satisfied and dissatisfied teachers from a survey of 500 in 51 urban and rural communities in northeastern United States. Comparing the 100 better satisfied with the 100 least satisfied, he found that the satisfied showed fewer indications of emotional maladjustment, were more religious, enjoyed better human relationships with

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[1]Robert Hoppock, Job Satisfaction (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1935), p. 215.

[2]Ibid., p. 7.

superiors and associates, were teaching in cities above ten thousand, felt more successful, and were on the average 7.5 years older than the dissatisfied.[1]

Thorndike reported another early study of worker satisfaction. Interviewers rated 1,140 boys and girls aged 18 to 22 on their liking for their work after a conversation designed to evoke a frank expression of their attitude toward it. On a scale ranging from 7 for "would rather do present work than any job he knows" to 4 for "indifference--no feeling either way" to 1 for "dislikes greatly," the median liking for the 18 to 20 year group was 5.4 and 5.8 for those 20 to 22. Less than one-tenth rated under 4. Less than one-twelfth of the 18 to 20 group and one-sixteenth of the 20 to 22 group reported dislike for work. Clerical workers reported greater liking for their work than did mechanical (manual) workers. Girls ranked higher regardless of work than did boys.[2]

Super's study of job satisfaction reported that slightly over 60 per cent of a group of 273 employed men aged 20 to 68 who were approached through their interest in one of a number of avocations said that they were satisfied with their jobs. There was a significant relationship

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[1] Ibid., pp. 25-40.

[2] Edward L. Thorndike, "Workers' Satisfaction," Occupations, Vol. 13 (1934-1935), pp. 704-706.

between occupational level and job satisfaction with the professional occupations being highest in job satisfaction. The nature of the work appeared as the most frequent reason for disliking a job. Younger men, aged 20 to 24, tended to be satisfied with their work, while men aged 25 to 34 tended to be dissatisfied. Men older than this were satisfied, with the possible exception of those aged 45 to 54.[1]

Walker and Marriott interviewed 976 men in two automobile assembly plants and one metal mill. About 35 per cent of the men in the automobile plants complained about the boredom of their work as contrasted to only eight per cent of the metal workers. This was apparently because of the small number of repetitive jobs in the metal mill. In the assembly-line plants, feelings ranged from resignation to considerable bitterness. A comparison between mechanized and non-mechanized groups in these plants showed significant differences between them in the extent of their job dissatisfaction, with those whose work pace was controlled by the conveyor being much more dissatisfied.[2]

Walker and Guest reported that only about ten per cent of the workers in an automobile assembly plant

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[1]Donald E. Super, "Occupational Level and Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 23 (1939), pp. 561-562.

[2]C. R. Walker and R. Marriott, "A Study of Some Attitudes to Factory Work," Occupational Psychology, Vol. 25 (1959), pp. 181-191.

preferred or were indifferent to jobs with basic mass production characteristics such as mechanical pacing and repetitiveness. A great majority expressed in varying degrees a dislike for these features of their job situations. A majority specifically stated that they liked their jobs to the degree to which they lacked repetitiveness, mechanical pacing, or related characteristics. On the other hand, they disliked them to the degree to which they included these characteristics. Workers on jobs with extreme mass production characteristics were absent more often from their jobs than were workers on jobs with low mass production characteristics. A large majority of the assembly line workers voted immediate job content as their number one reason for not liking their jobs. As the number of operations increased, expressed interest in work increased while as the number of operations decreased, the expressed interest declined. Based on these facts and on recommendations of the workers themselves, the authors suggested that job rotation and job enlargement be used to increase the variety component in assembly line work.[1]

Morse studied 742 employees doing clerical work in a large company. Employees who were satisfied with the content of their work, their pay and job status, and with

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[1]Charles R. Walker and Robert H. Guest, The Man on the Assembly Line (Cambridge, Mass.: Institute of Human Relations, Yale University, 1952), pp. 141-148.

the company as a place to work were better disposed toward many of the specific policies of the company, and were less likely to express a desire to leave the company. The degree of satisfaction received from the content of the job depended primarily upon the skill level of the job.[1] The need for pay and job status increased with education and with age. Employees working under supervisors who used general supervision rather than close supervision tended to become more closely identified with their work situation which led to greater satisfaction.[2]

Herzberg and his associates did an exhaustive review of the literature on job attitudes covering the period up to 1955. They found that the studies indicated that at least 13 per cent of the working population expressed negative attitudes toward their jobs when asked direct questions such as "Are you satisfied?" When asked less direct questions such as "If you could do it over . . .?" were asked, approximately 54 per cent expressed dissatisfaction.[3] In 17 of 23 studies of job satisfaction at various ages,

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[1]Nancy C. Morse, Satisfactions in the White-Collar Job (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1953), pp. 110-112.

[2]Ibid., pp. 164-165.

[3]Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, Richard O. Peterson, and Dora F. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion (Pittsburg: Psychological Service of Pittsburg, 1957), pp. 4-5.

morale was found to be high when workers started their first jobs. For the next few years morale declined and remained at a relatively low level until the workers reached their late twenties and early thirties. Morale then began to rise and continued to do so through the remainder of the worker's career in most cases.[1] Studies examining the personality and adjustment showed that the satisfied worker was generally a more flexible and better adjusted person who had come from a superior family environment and who had the capacity to overcome the effects of an inferior environment. He was realistic about his situation and about his goals. Dissatisfied workers, in contrast were often rigid, inflexible, and unrealistic in their choice of goals, unable to overcome environmental obstacles, and generally unhappy.[2]

Considerable evidence in the studies reviewed by Herzberg et al. indicated that the higher the occupational level, the greater the worker's satisfaction with his job. There was also support for the idea that morale increases as the workers take on additional responsibility and authority.[3] In studies in which the effect of job attitudes on productivity was determined, 54 per cent reported that

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[1] Ibid., p. 13.

[2] Ibid., p. 20.

[3] Ibid., p. 23.

high morale was associated with high productivity, while 35 per cent reported no relationship, and 11 per cent showed that high morale was associated with low productivity. The authors concluded that there were probably many factors other than job attitudes which also affected the productivity measures obtained.[1] The studies reviewed showed that the attitudes of the worker affected the consistency with which he would report to work when faced with minor obstacles and whether or not he would leave his job for minor reasons. Of 24 studies reviewed, 21 reported that workers with positive attitudes toward their job voluntarily terminated their employment with an organization over minor grievances less often than did workers with negative attitudes. Of 13 studies on absenteeism, 12 showed that workers with negative job attitudes tended to have nigh rates of absenteeism.[2]

After examining a number of studies of job satisfaction, Vroom concluded that:

> A work role most conducive to job satisfaction appears to be one which provides high pay, substantial promotional opportunities, considerate and participative supervision, an opportunity to interact with one's peers, varied duties, and a high degree of control over work methods and work pace.[3]

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[1] Ibid., p. 103.

[2] Ibid., pp. 105-106.

[3] Victor H. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), pp. 172-173.

He also concluded that there were consistent negative relationships between job satisfaction and probability of resignations, absences, and, probably, accidents. No simple relationship between job satisfaction and job performance appears to exist. Correlations between these variables vary within an extremely large range. The conditions which affect the magnitude and direction of relationships between satisfaction and performance is as yet unknown. Research also indicates that the level of performance of workers varies directly with the strength of the individual's need for achievement, particularly when the task is represented as difficult and challenging. Individuals will perform at a high level when they believe that they are being overcompensated, when they are led to believe that the task requires abilities which they value or believe themselves to possess, when given feedback on level of performance after overlearning a task, and when given an opportunity to participate in making decisions which have future effects on them.[1]

Brayfield and Crockett reviewed the empirical literature on the relationship between employee attitudes and performance. On 15 comparisons of job satisfaction with job performance, a low positive relationship was found in two of

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[1] Ibid., pp. 186, 267.

them. They concluded that there was a minimal or no relationship between attitudes and performance. There was the suggestion, however, that morale as a group phenomenon may bear a positive relationship to performance on the job.[1]

Fournet et al. reviewed the literature on employee attitudes and performance for the time period following the one covered by Brayfield and Crockett in their review. This later review caused the authors to conclude that the characteristics of both the individual and the job appeared to be related to job satisfaction, but that they were intercorrelated to such an extent that it was extremely difficult to isolate them for investigation. It was also difficult to understand how these factors were related to such behavior as performance, absenteeism, and turnover.[2] Alderfer in reviewing studies on job enlargement concluded that overall job satisfaction tended to be higher in enlarged jobs than in non-enlarged jobs. The meaningfulness of the job tended to be higher in enla ged jobs than in the more routine kind of blue collar ones.[3]

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[1]Arthur H. Brayfield and Walter H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 52, No. 5 (1955), pp. 396-405.

[2]Glenn P. Fournet, M. K. Distefano, Jr., and Margaret W. Pryer, "Job Satisfaction; Issues and Problems," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19 (1966), p. 180.

[3]Clayton P. Alderfer, "Job Enlargement and the Organizational Context," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 27 (1969), pp. 419.

Centers studied a cross-section of adult males and found distinct differences in satisfaction and dissatisfaction among occupational groups with their jobs. While people in the top strata were largely satisfied with their job, large numbers of those in the lower strata were not. The lower a person was in the occupational hierarchy, the more likely he was to say that he did not have a good chance to get ahead in his line of work.[1] Centers and Bugental compared different segments of the working population on sources of motivation in their job. In individual interviews with 692 randomly selected employed adults they found that the primary source of motivation for white collar workers was from intrinsic conditions of work. These conditions which were used in the study were self-expression, interest-value of the work, and feeling of satisfaction derived from the work itself. For blue collar workers, extrinsic sources provided the primary source of motivation. These included pay, security, and satisfying co-workers. The authors concluded that the reward-value of different types of job incentives differs for different parts of the working population. Different types of supervision should be effective with different segments of the population.[2]

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[1]Richard Centers, "Motivational Aspects of Occupational Stratification," Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 28 (1948), p. 216.

[2]Richard Centers and Daphne E. Bugental, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations Among Different Segments of

Katzell et al. in a study of the warehousing division of a large drug and pharmaceutical company found a generally positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and performance. Employee job satisfactions, as measured by a questionnaire, were significantly greater in those divisions which turned out the greater quantity of production per man hour. However, job satisfaction was not significantly associated with either turnover or quality of production.[1] Selah and Otis reported that job satisfaction of managers increased as age increased up to the pre-retirement period during which it decreased.[2] Singh and Baumgartel found that concern with stability in airline mechanics increased with age while concern with advancement decreased with age. Similarly, the concern with stability declined with education, and advancement concerns increased with education.[3]

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the Working Population," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50 (June, 1966), pp. 194-196.

[1]Raymond A. Katzell, Richard S. Barrett, and Treadway C. Parker, "Job Satisfaction, Job Performance, and Situational Characteristics," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 45, No. 2 (1961), pp. 69-72.

[2]Shoukry D. Selah and Jay L. Otis, "Age and Level of Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 17 (1964), p. 426.

[3]Tripit Narayan Singh and Howard Baumgartel, "Background Factors in Airline Mechanics' Work Motivations: A Research Note," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 5 (1966), pp. 358-359.

Finally, a recent study at the Duke University Center for the Study of Aging and Human Development found 38 factors which affect how long a person will live. The strongest factor, especially among males, was the extent to which a person continues to work and the amount of meaning and enjoyment he derives from his work. A positive attitude toward life was another factor found to be of significance.[1]

Summary

Attitudes toward one's work has long been a research interest of social scientists. These studies have indicated that a significant portion of the population are dissatisfied with their work. Generally, those most dissatisfied have been those in more routine jobs such as assembly line work while those most satisfied have been those where there is a large amount of individual decision making. Also, a feeling of ego-involvement in the operation of the organization contributes to satisfaction. Studies relating job satisfaction to production have been conflicting. Summaries of research studies relating these variables have indicated at best low positive correlations. However, there is some indication that job satisfaction as a group phenomenon is

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[1] Notes and Quotes, No. 389 (Hartford, Connecticut: Connecticut General Life Insurance Company, November, 1971), p. 1.

positively related to the performance of the group. Apparently, there are many variables in individual job satisfaction which complicate the relationship between satisfaction and production.

Studies Using Herzberg Technique

Herzberg's original research has been replicated partially or in totality several times. Schwartz et al. studied 111 male supervisors in 21 gas and electric utility companies in the Middle Atlantic and New England states. They were enrolled in a management training course at Rutgers University Extension Division. They ranged in age from 27 to 62 with a mean age of 40. Only 31 per cent were college graduates. Two methodological changes were made from the original study. Rather than interview the subjects, the researchers used a questionnaire patterned after the interview. Secondly, the analysis was limited to first-level factors. Only one factor showed a reversal from the predicted results. The only hygiene factors which occurred significantly as a motivator was interpersonal relationships with subordinates. All of the six motivators from Herzberg's original study occurred more frequently in the high job-attitude (motivators) sequences than in the low attitude sequences (hygiene factors), except work itself. The hygiene factors also appeared to be verified by this study. No variations in results were found when analysis was made

for differences in age, job classification, education, or personality characteristics.[1]

Herzberg did a replication in Finland with a group of lower-level supervisors who were attending a managerial development conference. The age varied from 27 to 62 with a mean of 36. They were given a translated version of the same questionnaire used by Schwartz et al. Five of the six motivators were found to occur significantly more often in the high-feeling sequences than in the low. Only possibility of growth failed to follow the expected pattern. Four of the hygiene factors (supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships with peers) appeared significantly more often in the low-feeling sequences. None of the factors were found in reverse of expectations. No meaningful alterations in the findings were found that could be attributed to age or education.[2]

In an exact replication as to methodology Walt studied 50 professional women engaged in research and analytical work on United States government installations. The ages varied

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[1]Milton M. Schwartz, Edmund Jenusaitis, and Harry Stark, "Motivation Factors Among Supervisors in the Utility Industry," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 16 (1963), pp. 45-53.

[2]Frederick Herzberg, "The Motivation to Work Among Finish Supervisors," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 18 (1965), pp. 393-402.

from the early 30's to the 60's, and the level of education was quite high with nearly half having graduate degrees. Of the motivators four (achievement, work itself, responsibility, and recognition) occurred significantly more often when high-feeling sequences were analyzed. Company policy and administration was the most frequent source of job unhappiness with status, working conditions, and factors in their personal lives also serving as sources of dissatisfaction. Two hygiene factors (interpersonal relationships with peers and interpersonal relationships with subordinates) were found significantly more often in the high job-attitude sequences than as expected in the low.[1]

Clegg studied 58 county administrators of the Nebraska Cooperative Extension Service. He found that two of the motivators (achievement and recognition) were in the predicted direction. Six of the ten hygiene factors (company policy and administration, working conditions, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, supervision, and personal life) were significantly related to dissatisfaction. In addition, one hygiene factor which Clegg added for his particular study (relationships with the extension board) was a significant

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[1]Elizabeth Walt reported in Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 1966), pp. 102-103.

factor in bringing about dissatisfaction.[1]

Another study was done by Salen and Otis on 85 managerial employees who were between the ages of 60 and 65 and had worked for companies with compulsory retirement at age 65. Only possibility of growth among the motivators failed to differentiate satisfier from dissatisfier events. Hygiene factors found significantly more often among the dissatisfaction sequences included: company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, and interpersonal relationships with peers.[2]

Scott Myers studied a variety of employees in the Texas Instruments Company in Dallas, Texas. The 282 employees studied included 50 scientists, 55 engineers, 50 manufacturing supervisors, 75 male technicians, and 52 female hourly assemblers. Myers used about the same methodology that Herzberg had used except that he coded only one factor per sequence of events told by the respondent. This was the one that Myers considered to be the most important one and resulted in a decreased number of factors that could show up in the count. Since 44 per cent of all the satisfaction

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[1]Denzil O. Clegg, "The Motivation of County Administrators in the Cooperative Extension Service" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1963), pp. 81-99.

[2]Shoukry D. Saleh and Jay L. Otis, "Sources of Job Satisfaction and Their Effects on Attitudes Toward Retirement," Journal of Industrial Psychology, Vol. 1 (1963), pp. 101-106.

events was coded with the achievement factor, only slightly more than half of the events could be distributed among the other factors. For scientists and engineers only achievement among the motivators and company policy and administration and supervison among the hygiene factors were significant in the expected direction. For the manufacturing supervisors recognition and achievement were significant among motivators while company policy and administration was among the hygiene factors. For hourly technicians motivators were achievement, recognition, and responsibility. Hygiene factors were company policy and administration and supervision. For female assemblers achievement and recognition were found to be significant as motivators. No hygiene factor was found to be significant. In summary, this research with five varied occupations tends to confirm Herzberg's basic theory.[1]

Another study which was done by Anderson in a Veterans Administration hospital broadened the level of the job and type of organizations in which research had been done. This study included in the sample 29 professional nurses, 31 skilled workers in engineering maintenance services, and 35 unskilled workers in food services and routine engineering services. In about one-third of the cases the interviewer was unable to secure sequences when

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[1]M. Scott Myers, "Who Are Your Motivated Workers?" Harvard Business Review, Vol. 42 (January-February, 1964), pp. 73-78.

the respondent had felt exceptionally good about his job. This resulted in some problems of analysis because of small numbers. In these cases the data were reported as "approaching significance." In these cases the results would have been significant had the sample been slightly larger. For the nurses, two motivators (achievement and recognition) approached significance. Two hygiene factors (company policy and administration and interpersonal relationships with superiors) were significant and another (working conditions) approached significance. For the skilled maintenance employees three motivators (recognition, achievement, and possibility of growth) approached significance. Two hygiene factors (company policy and administration and supervision) approached significance. For the unskilled workers the motivators recognition and responsibility approached significance. The hygiene factor of company policy and administration was significant, and supervision and interpersonal relationships with peers approached significance.[1]

Another study was done in a Veterans Administration hospital by Gendel in which he studied 119 housekeeping workers. Motivators that were significant included recognition, advancement, and responsibility. This was the first study that found salary to be significant as a dissatisfier,

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[1]Frederic John Anderson, "Factors in Motivation to Work Across Three Occupational Levels" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Utah, 1961).

a finding which the theory had predicted. Four other hygiene factors were found to be significant as dissatisfiers. There were working conditions, interpersonal relationships with peers, company policy and administration, and supervision.[1]

Herzberg reported the results of a study done on a group of Hungarian engineers. Four motivators (work itself, achievement, recognition, and responsibility) and two hygiene factors (company policy and administration and supervision) were all statistically significant.[2]

Another study which appeared to use the Herzberg technique was recently reported. The objective of the study was to determine the sources of satisfying and dissatisfying feelings of agents of the Cooperative Extension Service in Kentucky relative to some specific organizational changes. It was conducted two and one-half years after the following major changes: (1) changing the program responsibility of each member of the field staff from a generalist to an area specialist; (2) enlarging the geographical area of each agent from a single county to a multicounty area of seven to ten counties; and (3) changing the supervisory structure from a team of supervisors for each district of 20 to 25 counties to one supervisor for each multicounty area. The satisfying

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[1]H. Gendel quoted in Herzberg, pp. 117-119.

[2]Herzberg, p. 120.

factors relating to changing from a generalist to an area specialist were possibility of personal growth, the work itself, and responsibility. The dissatisfying factors were interpersonal relations with county clientele, policy and administration, working conditions, clientele expectations, and supervision. In changing from county to multicounty responsibility, the satisfying factors were achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and interpersonal relations with other agencies. The dissatisfying factors were working conditions, interpersonal relations with county clientele, clientele expectations, personal life, and supervision. In changing from a team of supervisors to a single supervisor, the satisfying factors were supervision and responsibility. The dissatisfying factors were interpersonal relations with co-workers, policy and administration, interpersonal relations with county clientele, and salary. These findings were considered by the authors as lending support to the dual grouping of factors by Herzberg. Another dimension of this study was an attempt to relate source of job satisfaction with job performance as measured by performance ratings. Agents rated low on performance identified achievement and interest in job performance as a source of satisfying incidents a significantly greater percentage of the time than did the agents rated high in job performance. On the other hand, agents rated high more often received satisfaction from

incidents that afforded them greater responsibility. A lack of status was a source of dissatisfaction for low-rated agents but was of little concern to high-rated agents.[1]

Summary

The research and theory of Herzberg stimulated a number of research studies in the area of job satisfaction. Herzberg hypothesized that certain factors serve as sources of job satisfaction and are therefore stimulators of motivation, or motivators. Other factors, called hygiene factors, result in job dissatisfaction. Motivators when satisfied result in job satisfaction. Hygiene factors when satisfied result in an absence of job dissatisfaction and when not satisfied result in job dissatisfaction. The methods of securing data about job attitudes used by Herzberg was a critical incident technique in which the respondent recalled a time when he had felt especially good and a time when he had felt especially bad about his job.

Studies Using Other Techniques

Herzberg's study using an adaptation of the critical incident technique has stimulated a large number of studies which have attempted to replicate his findings using other techniques. Generally, the studies which have used the

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[1]Randall Barnett and Logan Louderback, "When Organizations Change," Journal of Extension, Vol. 9 (Summer, 1971), pp. 9-15.

technique developed by Herzberg have given results supporting Herzberg's two-factor theory. On the other hand, studies which have used other methods have only partially supported Herzberg's findings or have found results which lend no support to it.[1] This section will review some of these studies.

Friedlander used an adaptation of the Herzberg technique to study sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of 40 full time employed persons in a variety of occupations who were attending an evening psychology course. Also included in the study were 40 students working under a cooperative plan. The subjects were asked to think of times on the job when they had felt good about their job and times when they had felt badly. They were then asked to indicate the relative importance of 18 factors similar to the 16 factors in Herzberg's study to their feelings. There was a significant difference between the importance that the respondents ascribed to the various job characteristics as sources of satisfaction as opposed to the same factors as sources of dissatisfaction for 15 of the factors. Those most important to satisfaction tended not to be important to dissatisfaction. Thus, Herzberg's finding that satisfaction and dissatisfaction

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[1]Orlando Behling, George Labovitz, and Richard Kosmo, "The Herzberg Controversy: A Critical Reappraisal," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 11 (1968), p. 105.

were not opposite ends of a common set of dimensions was substantiated by this study. However, his findings that satisfiers dealt largely with indices of personal growth and self-actualization and that dissatisfiers dealt with environmental and physical characteristics of the job were only partially substantiated. Intrinsic job characteristics were important to both while extrinsic factors tended to be important to neither.[1]

Halpern asked 101 subjects who had been involved with a university counseling service during the period 1948 to 1952 to rate various aspects of their best liked job using a seven point graphic rating scale from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. The subjects were equally well satisfied with both the motivator and hygiene aspects of their job, however, motivators contributed significantly more to overall satisfaction than did hygiene factors. The average correlation between motivators and overall satisfaction was significantly higher than the average correlation between hygiene factors and satisfaction. The author concluded that these findings support the basic thesis of the motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction. In spite of the fact that the subjects were equally satisfied with both aspects of their jobs, the motivators were primarily

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[1]Frank Friedlander, "Job Characteristics as Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 48, No. 6 (1964), pp. 388-392.

related to job satisfaction.[1]

Harrison did intercorrelations on a 78-item questionnaire on management job attitudes with 186 respondents. He found that 28 of the items could be grouped into eight clusters. The cluster accounting for the greatest amount of common variance was assumed to have the greatest significance for the manager's overall job attitudes. The cluster designated "Opportunity to Advance and Accomplish" accounted for 38.5 per cent while "Non-economic Stability and Security" and "Communications with Top Management" accounted for 32.8 and 31.4 per cent respectively. The content of the first cluster suggests those aspects of the job reported by Herzberg as most significant in determining job attitudes. That cluster's items dealt with aspects of the manager's job which refer to opportunities for achievement, recognition, and advancement. The author recognized that this study did not show as dramatic differences as found by Herzberg, but the greater proportion of the variance was accounted for by this cluster and was consistent with their findings. He concluded that these results lend support for the Herzberg theory that self-realization opportunities were the main source of job motivation for managers and professional

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[1]Gerald Halpern, "Relative Contributions of Motivator and Hygiene Factors to Overall Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 3 (1966), pp. 198-200.

people.[1]

Friedlander administered questionnaires to 600 randomly selected engineering, supervisors, and salaried employees. Using a modification of the Herzberg technique, he asked the subjects to think of a time when they felt good about their job and to check the relative importance of each of 17 items to this feeling. Three factors emerged under factor analysis which accounted for the variance in the 17 factors. These were social and technical environment, intrinsic self-actualizing work aspects, and recognition through advancement. Those deriving satisfaction from social and technical environment could be described as older, less well paid, and more frequently in the salaried and supervision group. Significantly fewer were engineers. Those deriving satisfaction from intrinsic self-actualizing work aspects tended to be younger. There was no indication that any one of the three factor groups had greater overall job satisfaction. These results tend to indicate that the underlying structure of job satisfaction is somewhat more complex than the Herzberg theory would indicate. Both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors were found as sources of job satisfaction.[2]

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[1]Roger Harrison, "Sources of Variation in Managers' Job Attitudes," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 13 (1960), pp. 427-433.

[2]Frank Friedlander, "Underlying Sources of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 47, No. 4 (1963), pp. 246-250.

In another study Friedlander compared sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of 1,468 white and blue collar workers of an agency of the U.S. Government with indicators of their performance as indicated by salary level relative to age and tenure with the organization. As indicated above Friedlander had earlier found that the variance of Herzberg's factors could be accounted for by three relative independent factors. Low performance white collar workers placed significantly greater importance on social and interpersonal characteristics of their work environment than did high performance workers. However, social environment became an increasingly important motivator for high performers as they became older or as their tenure increased. There was little difference between high performance and low performance white collar workers in the emphasis placed on intrinsic characteristics of their work, however, high performers in the 50 years and older age group placed significantly more emphasis on intrinsic characteristics of their work. Extremely high performance individuals placed significantly more importance on intrinsic work performance than did extremely low performers. Among blue collar workers, low performing employees placed decreasing emphasis on importance of intrinsic work characteristics as they grew older. Low performing white collar workers attached significantly greater importance to opportunities for receiving recognition,

responsibility, and promotion than did high performers. In other findings, intrinsic work was of greater importance than either social environment or recognition to both high and low white collar performers during early age and tenure periods. However, at ages 30 to 39 and 4 to 6 year tenure, the low performers ranked social environment over intrinsic work. Thus, with increasing age and tenure there was a tendency for the social environment to become more important than recognition through advancement for high performance individuals and more important than intrinsic work for low performers. A noticeable trend among low performers was that the motivation in all three areas begins at a moderate level, reaches a peak during middle years, and lessens appreciably after age 50. For high performers a slight trend to the opposite was observed.[1]

Friedlander and Walton did a study in one of the Armed Services largest research and development laboratories on 82 of the most productive scientists and engineers as rated by management. The results indicated that the reasons that a scientist or engineer remains with an organization are quite different from those for which he might leave. This is a clear indication that positive motivations and negative motivations are not merely opposites. Prime satisfiers that

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[1]Frank Friedlander, "Motivations to Work and Organizational Performance," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 2 (1966), pp. 143-152.

serve to attract the scientist are his interest in his work and his technical freedom. Only a small proportion indicated frustration of these to be the prime dissatisfiers. A high proportion of the positive motivations were oriented toward elements central to the work process while a high proportion of the negatives were peripheral to the work itself.[1]

Burke in a study of 48 female and 139 male introductory industrial psychology students, who ranked ten job characteristics in order of importance for themselves, concluded that Herzberg's motivators and hygienes are neither unidimensional nor independent constructs. Both sexes ranked a significant number of motivators more important than hygienes. This indicates a relatively greater importance for motivators over hygienes.[2]

Wernimont administered a forced choice questionnaire which was developed using Herzberg's five major satisfiers and five major dissatisfiers to 50 accountants and 82 engineers from a variety of Midwestern companies. Both groups endorsed a higher proportion of intrinsic items when describing satisfying situations. However, a larger

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[1]Frank Friedlander and Eugen Walton, "Positive and Negative Motivations Toward Work," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 9 (September, 1964), pp. 198-206.

[2]Ronald J. Burke, "Are Herzberg's Motivators and Hygienes Unidimensional," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 4 (1966), pp. 319-321.

proportion of the intrinsic items was also endorsed in describing dissatisfying situations. There was a tendency for older, better paid individuals who had generally been with the company a long time to endorse more intrinsic items in describing satisfying situations, and extrinsic items in describing dissatisfying. The authors concluded that apparently either extrinsic or intrinsic items can cause both satisfying and dissatisfying feelings about the job. These findings agree with Herzberg's in that intrinsic factors are important determiners of satisfied feelings, but differ markedly from the claim that extrinsic factors contribute most to dissatisfying feelings.[1]

Ewen et al. administered the Job Description Index and the General Motors Faces Scale, measures of job satisfaction, to a sample of 793 males varying widely in job level, age, educational background, experience, place of employment, and other characteristics. The results indicated that satisfiers could serve as strong sources of dissatisfaction as well as satisfaction. Satisfaction with the satisfiers, however, leads to greater overall satisfaction than does satisfaction with the dissatisfiers. Dissatisfaction with the satisfiers leads to greater overall dissatisfaction than does dissatisfaction with the dissatisfiers.

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[1]Paul F. Wernimont, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 1 (1966), pp. 42-48.

This tends to support other findings that intrinsic factors are the most important sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This study suggests that the manner in which the extrinsic factors operate may depend upon the level of satisfaction with the intrinsic factors.[1]

Malinovsky and Barry studied job satisfaction among blue collar workers. They found that overall job satisfaction among blue collar workers was positively related to both motivators and hygiene variables. They concluded that the underlying structure of job attitudes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction is more complex than Herzberg's two factor theory suggests.[2] Hinricks and Mischkind studied 613 techniques employed in service work for a large national company. They found that for the high satisfaction group, motivators were predominant in influencing satisfaction positively. For the low satisfaction group motivators had about equal positive and negative influence. Hygiene factors acted predominantly positively for the low satisfaction group and predominantly negatively for the high satisfaction group. This finding prompted the authors to conclude that

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[1]Robert B. Ewen, Patricia Cain Smith, Charles L. Hulin, and Edwin A. Locke, "An Empirical Test of the Herzberg Two-Factor Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 6 (1966), pp. 544-549.

[2]Michael R. Malinovsky and John R. Barry, "Determinants of Work Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 49, No. 6 (1965), pp. 447-449.

motivators may be the prime influencers of satisfaction while hygiene factors may act to limit complete satisfaction for highly satisfied workers and to limit complete dissatisfaction for lowly satisfied workers.[1]

Ewen administered a questionnaire to 1021 full-time life insurance salesmen which contained a 58-item four point attitude scale. Part of the group was tested in 1960 and the remainder in 1962. For the 1960 group "Managerial Interest in Agents" and "Training" (consider by the author as dissatisfiers) actually acted as satisfiers. "Salary," "Prestige," and "Recognition" acted as satisfiers in the 1960 group and as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers in 1962. "Work It elf" was a satisfier.[2]

Dunnette et al. developed two Q-Sort decks of 36 statements each, one describing satisfying job situations and the other describing dissatisfying situations. Subjects in six occupational groups used these to describe previously satisfying and dissatisfying job situations. The results showed that the Herzberg two-factor theory is an oversimplified portrayal of the mechanism by which job satisfaction or

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[1]John R. Hinricks and Louis A. Mischkind, "Empirical and Theoretical Limitations of the Two-Factor Hypothesis of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 51, No. 2 (1967), pp. 191-197.

[2]Robert B. Ewen, "Some Determinants of Job Satisfaction: A Study of the Generality of Herzberg's Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 48, No. 3 (1964), pp. 161-162.

dissatisfaction comes about. The authors concluded that satisfaction or dissatisfaction can reside in the job content, job context, or both jointly. Certain job dimensions, such as achievement, responsibility, and recognition are more important for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction than certain other job dimensions such as working conditions, company policies and practices, and security. These findings caused the authors to conclude that the two-factor theory should be laid to rest so as to reduce the danger of further research or administrative decisions being dictated by its simplicity.[1]

Graen performed a two way analysis of variance on selected a priori contrasts from the data reported by Ewen et al.[2] He found that the contributions of the satisfiers was much greater than that of the dissatisfiers to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. He further concluded that no support was provided for the two-factor theory of Herzberg, but that a unidimensional theory of job satisfaction in which some variables have a more potent effect upon satisfaction than others was indicated by this study.[3]

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[1]Marvin D. Dunnette, John P. Campbell, and Milton D. Hakel, "Factors Contributing to Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction in Six Occupational Groups," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, Vol. 2 (1967), p. 143.

[2]Ewen, et al.

[3]George B. Graen, "Addendum to 'An Empirical Test of the Herzberg Two-Factor Theory'," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 50, No. 6 (1966), pp. 551-554.

Hulin and Smith drew two implications from the two-factor theory of Herzberg that (1) satisfaction is qualitatively different from dissatisfaction and (2) the presence of a job characteristic will have one effect on a job and the absence of the same characteristic will have the opposite effect. They tested these implications using data from the Job Description Index and General Motors Faces Scale results on 670 office employees, supervisors, and executives from the same company. The results indicated that satisfiers acted both as satisfiers and dissatisfiers and that the dissatisfiers acted in a similar manner. The analysis of the importance of various job characteristics on the way people reacted to different job situations was the same whether the characteristic was present or absent. This was interpreted as supporting the hypothesis that any variable in the job situation can be both a satisfier and a dissatisfier and that if the presence of a variable makes a job desirable then the absence of the same variable makes the job undesirable.[1]

Lindsay et al. selected one job factor to represent satisfiers and then wrote items to describe these factors. The 162 professional and 162 non-professional employees of

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[1]Charles L. Hulin and Patricia A. Smith, "An Empirical Investigation of Two Implications of the Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 51, No. 5 (1967), pp. 396-401.

a small aerospace research and development company who served as subjects were asked to think of times in their job experience when they had experienced situations similar to those described and to indicate how satisfied they were. The results indicated that over 75 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction could be accounted for by the class of job factors known as motivators and hygienes in the Herzberg theory. However, a disjoint relationship between motivators and hygienes as predicted by Herzberg theory was not found. Motivators and hygienes appeared to be related to job satisfaction in a nonadditive fashion suggesting that a given level of job satisfaction could not be predicted from a simple weighted sum of the levels of motivators and hygienes. Motivators were more important to job satisfaction than were hygienes. The authors concluded that Herzberg's conception of job satisfaction as being comprised of two unipolar continua should be re-evaluated.[1]

Victor H. Vroom has criticized the Herzberg two-factor hypothesis. He argues that the relative frequency with which job content and job contextural features will be mentioned as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction is dependent upon the nature of the content and context of the

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[1]Carl A. Lindsay, Edmond Marks, and Leon Gorlow, "The Herzberg Theory: A Critique and Reformulation," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 51, No. 4 (1967), pp. 330-339.

work roles of the respondents. He also argues that it is possible that obtained differences between stated sources of satisfaction stem from defensive processes within the individual respondent. He believes that persons are more likely to attribute the causes of satisfaction to their own achievements and accomplishments on the job and to attribute their dissatisfaction, not to personal inadequencies or deficiencies but to factors in the work environment.[1]

On the other hand, Herzberg has argued that people who are trying to make themselves "look good" are more prone to say they are unhappy because they

> . . . do not have responsibility, are not getting ahead, have uninteresting work, see no possibility for growth and do not receive recognition than to say that their supervisor is unfriendly, the administration is poor, the working conditions are bad, their fellow workers are unsociable, etc.[2]

He also believed that it is more difficult to "fake" responses using the "sequence of events" method than it would be on a job attitude scale.[3]

House and Wigdor have summarized the criticisms of the Herzberg two-factor theory and conclude that research has shown that a given factor can cause job satisfaction for one person and dissatisfaction for another. Also, a

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[1]Vroom, Work and Motivation, pp. 128-129.

[2]Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, pp. 130-131.

[3]Ibid.

given factor can cause both satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the same sample. Intrinsic factors appear to be more important for both satisfying and dissatisfying job events. Finally, they conclude that the two-factor theory is an oversimplification of the relationships between motivation and satisfaction and the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.[1]

Behling et al. have pointed out that it is possible that no single unitary overall attitude toward an individual's employment exists and that research must deal with many varied and often conflicting evaluations of various aspects of a man's job. These different aspects may be tapped in different ways by different data gathering methods. In other words, they believe that the Herzberg method and the traditional methods of assessing job satisfaction are measuring different things in different ways. They believe that any attempt to produce a single measure of job satisfaction is doomed to failure. Efforts should be devoted to the development of many measuring devices and techniques which will provide reliable and internally consistent data indicative of the important part of the total attitudinal complex.[2]

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[1]Robert J. House and Lawrence A. Wigdor, "Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 20 (1967), pp. 369-389.

[2]Behling et al., pp. 107-108.

Since many of the studies of sources of job satisfaction indicate that the achievement of important work goals is important as a source of job satisfaction, the body of research on achievement motivation appears to be relevant to this review. The achievement motive has been defined as ". . . affect in connection with evaluated performance,"[1] and the attempt to increase or keep as high as possible one's capability to perform activities where a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can either succeed or fail.[2] These definitions seem to imply that individuals high in the achievement motive could be expected to derive job satisfaction from activities connected with employment where there is an opportunity to judge one's success or failure according to a standard.

Research has tended to show that individuals high in the achievement motive tend to come from middle class rather than lower or upper class homes, tend to remember uncompleted tasks better than completed ones, choose experts over friends as working partners, and are more resistant to social pressure. These individuals tend to outperform those who

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[1]David C. McClelland, John W. Atkinson, Russell A. Clark, and Edgar L. Lowell, The Achievement Motive (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953), pp. 78-79.

[2]Heinz Heckhausen, The Anatomy of Achievement Motivation, translated by Kay F. Butler, Robert C. Birney, and David C. McClelland (New York: Academic Press, 1967), pp. 4-5.

are low in achievement motivation on tasks where a standard with respect to performance is present.[1] High achievement motivated persons perform best under conditions of moderate uncertainty when their efforts or skills can make a difference in the outcome.[2] Nations with a high average level of achievement motivation tend to surpass those with a low level in economic growth.[3] Successful entrepreneurs and other managers tend to have a high level of achievement motivation.[4]

Summary

Generally, studies which have used Herzberg's technique have tended to confirm his theory that certain factors contribute much to job satisfaction but very little to dissatisfaction. Other factors seem to cause job dissatisfaction but when absent result in little satisfaction. Studies which have not used the Herzberg technique but have attempted to confirm his findings have generally failed to do so. These studies have tended to find that so called motivators have been most important in both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While there has been a tendency for the motivators

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[1]David C. McClelland, The Achieving Society (Princeton, N. J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961), pp. 43-46.

[2]Ibid., p. 211.

[3]Ibid., pp. 63-158.

[4]Ibid., pp. 205-300.

to be the primary source of satisfaction, the hygiene factors have not necessarily been the principal source of dissatisfaction. Apparently, the methods of Herzberg and the methods of the researchers attempting to confirm his findings by other methods have been assessing different aspects of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Achievement motivation research appears to contribute to the understanding of some of the factors associated with job satisfaction since individuals high in achievement motivation tend to derive satisfaction from competing successfully with standards of performance. This is particularly true when the individual through his own effort can influence the outcome.

Conclusions

This review of literature has traced the development of the human relations school of management, which has to some extent paralleled the development of the Cooperative Extension Service, an organization in which practices encouraged by human relationists are common. According to the human relations school of management, more effective performance of employees can be achieved if the emphasis in the organization is placed upon integrating the goals of the organization with those of the individual employee. This should increase the initiative of the worker and stimulate a higher level of motivation than would the authoritarian methods of more traditional schools.

The individual professional extension worker operates with a minimum of close supervision. He has great freedom in determining the areas of emphasis in his work and the amount of time and effort that he will devote to given areas. Lines of authority in the Cooperative Extension Service are not always clear. While the individual extension employee tends to look toward the land-grant university for general direction, he is also very sensitive to the wishes of the local governing body.

The theoretical framework of this dissertation has summarized the writing of Douglas McGregor in which he labeled the more traditional management practices as Theory X practices and those of goal integration as Theory Y practices. This review of literature has indicated that practices consistent with Theory Y have resulted in greater motivation of workers. Since the Cooperative Extension Service tends to place emphasis on practices consistent with Theory Y, a tendency to subscribe to Theory Y as a philosophy of management by county extension leaders is expected. It is also expected that county leaders who subscribe to Theory Y will tend to provide an administrative climate in which their subordinates can develop their best potential as an extension worker, and as a result, a high level of motivation to work. This should result in a high rating on the leadership function by the county leader's supervisor.

Research on job attitudes tend to indicate that productivity of the worker is not guaranteed by job satisfaction. There seems to be a number of factors involved in productivity. However, with other things being equal there is some indication that job satisfaction as a group phenomenon is associated with the productivity of that group. Job satisfaction appears to be associated with the degree to which a job is challenging. A much higher level of dissatisfaction was found in jobs which are more routine, such as assembly line work. The work of the Herzberg group has tended to indicate that job satisfaction is derived from the work itself while dissatisfaction comes from factors surrounding the job.

The work of the county extension leader contains few items of a routine nature. It is expected that his satisfaction will be derived from the more challenging aspects of his work, and his dissatisfaction is expected to be associated with the aspects of his job which have the potential to produce routine or unpleasant situations.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will present the research procedures used in this study. The first section will give the research hypotheses along with the variables. The procedures used to collect the data will be explained in the second section. This will be followed by an explanation of how the data were analyzed.

Hypotheses and Variables

In this section the hypothesis to be tested will first be given. This will be followed by an explanation of the independent and dependent variables.

Hypothesis 1

> There is no relationship between age, tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management or administration training and assumptions about the nature of people.

Independent Variables

Age was expected to be associated with the assumptions that county leaders held about the nature of people.

Kidd has noted that older adults are more conservative.[1] Miner pointed out that there is a tendency for older people to maintain previously established attitudes.[2] The assumptions about people in Theory X tend to be more conservative than do those of Theory Y. This may indicate that younger county extension leaders should tend to subscribe to Theory Y and older ones to Theory X.

Tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service is closely related to the age variable and was investigated with age controlled. Long periods of service with an organization which has placed emphasis on individual initiative could result in an increasing orientation toward Theory Y as tenure increases.

All of the county leaders also occupy another position as the agricultural agent in the county. Although the county leaders were formally designated in 1963, the county agricultural agent had on an informal basis carried out many of the duties of the county leader previous to 1963. Therefore, tenure was based on time during which the respondent had been the agricultural agent. Again, this variable is related to the age variable and was investigated with age controlled. This was to be the experience factor.

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[1]J. R. Kidd, How Adults Learn (New York: Association Press, 1959), p. 124.

[2]John B. Miner, Personnel Psychology (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 20.

Increasing numbers of county extension leaders are pursuing master's degrees. In the course of graduate study, especially in the social sciences and education, these individuals have had opportunities to be exposed to the ideas that are included in Theory Y.

The military method of administration is based upon the assumptions of Theory X. County leaders who first gained experience as administrators in the military as commissioned or non-commissioned officers were expected to be more inclined toward Theory X than those who served as enlisted men or who did not serve at all.

No in-service training program in administration has been conducted for county extension leaders. However, a course in administration of county extension programs was taught in the graduate school of Mississippi State University by Professor C. M. Ferguson, a former administrator of the Federal Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and a former professor of Extension and Adult Education at the University of Wisconsin and North Carolina State University. This course was taught in late 1968, and a similar course was taught by Dr. Don A. Seaman, assistant professor of adult education at Mississippi State University, in June of 1971. Approximately one-half of the county extension leaders have completed one of these two courses. In addition, other courses in management or administration have been completed by some.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the assumptions held about the nature of people as determined by a scale designed to measure the individual's orientation toward McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.

Hypothesis 2

> There is no relationship between age, tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management or administration training and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction according to the motivation-hygiene theory.

Independent Variables

The same independent variables as listed for hypothesis 1 were used for hypothesis 2. The theoretical framework which indicates a relationship between assumptions about the nature of people and source of job satisfaction implies that similar relationships should exist between the independent variables and the dependent variable for hypothesis 2 as do with hypothesis 1. Research by Herzberg et al. showed virtually no difference in source of job dissatisfaction and occupation, age, education, or level of employment in the organization. Some significant relationships were found for source of satisfaction. Those high in education cited recognition more often than did those low in education. Recognition and achievement were

cited more frequently by those high in the organization than by those who were low. Older individuals more frequently cited achievement than did the younger ones.[1] Schwartz et al. found no variations in results for differences in age, job classification, education, or personality characteristics.[2] Herzberg found no differences in Finland in results for age or education.[3] Thus, the relationship is not clear from the literature between the independent variables in this hypothesis and the dependent variable.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory.

Hypothesis 3

There is no relationship between the county extension leader's assumptions about the nature of people and performance of his personnel management function.

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[1]Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Block Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959), pp. 98-99.

[2]Milton M. Schwartz, Edmund Jenusaitis, and Harry Stark, "Motivation Factors Among Supervisors in the Utility Industry," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 16 (1963), pp. 45-53.

[3]Frederick Herzberg, "The Motivation to Work Among Finish Supervisors," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 18 (1965), pp. 393-402.

Independent Variable

The independent variable was the assumptions about the nature of people held by county extension leaders based on Theory X and Theory Y.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the county leader's performance of his personnel management function as assessed by the district agent, who is the county leader's immediate supervisor.

Hypothesis 4

There is no relationship between the source of the county leader's job satisfaction and his performance of his personnel management function.

Independent Variable

The independent variable was the source of job satisfaction of the county extension leader. In Barnett and Louderback's study of extension agents in Kentucky agents rated low in performance identified achievement and interest in job performance as sources of satisfying experiences a significantly greater percentage of the time than did agents who had been rated high on job performance. Agents who had been rated high more often received satisfaction from events that afforded them greater responsibility. A lack of status was a source of dissatisfaction for low-rated agents but was

of little concern to the agents who were rated high.[1]

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the county leader's performance of his personnel management function as judged by the district agent.

Hypothesis 5

There is no relationship between a county extension leader's assumptions about the nature of people and the source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Independent Variable

The independent variable was the assumptions about the nature of people held by county extension leaders based on Theory X and Theory Y.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by the county leader based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory.

Data Collection

The data used in describing the population and in testing the hypotheses were collected with the use of a mailed questionnaire from 81 of the 82 county extension leaders in Mississippi. (See Appendix A for Questionnaire.)

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[1]Randall Barnett and Logan Louderback, "When Organizations Change," Journal of Extension, Vol. 9 (Summer, 1971), p. 13.

Approximately three-fourths of the questionnaires were returned as a result of the first letter. A second letter to those not responding to the first caused all of those not responding except one to return their questionnaires. A third letter was sent to the one failing to respond with no results.

The questionnaire was pre-tested by sending it to a sample of associate county agents and area extension agents drawn at random from a list of those believed to have characteristics similar to those of the county extension leaders. A few minor changes were made as a result of the pre-test.

The following items of information were collected with the mailed questionnaire and in conference with the district extension agents.

Assumptions About People

The county extension leaders' assumptions about the nature of people were assessed with the use of an instrument developed by James L. Whitfield.[1] This instrument required the respondent to express agreement or disagreement with 30 statements related to assumptions about the nature of people in accordance with the writings of McGregor. There were five points of agreement or disagreement

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[1]James L. Whitfield, "The Influence of Different Behavioral Approaches on Job Effectiveness Within a University Extension Division" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation prospectus, Florida State University, 1970), pp. 38-40.

(strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree). These 30 items were selected after administering an instrument containing 47 items designed to assess Theory X and Theory Y orientation to a sample of Florida Cooperative Extension Service employees. Cluster analysis produced these 30 statements as being the items which differentiated best between the high and the low groups.[1]

Source of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

A section of the mailed questionnaire contained an instrument developed from the procedure used by Herzberg et al. in their study of job attitudes and motivation. In this study the respondent was asked during an interview to recall a time during his work career when he had felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about his job. With the use of probing questions the interviewer attempted to determine the factors which caused favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward the respondent's job and the effects these attitudes had on the individual.[2] Schwartz et al. used a procedure in which the interview schedule was developed into a questionnaire that was administered in a group setting. The researchers felt that no serious loss resulted in this attempt to keep the method as direct and as

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Herzberg et al., pp. 20-96.

objective as possible.[1] Herzberg used the questionnaire developed by Schwartz et al. in his study of job attitudes in Finland.[2]

This study used a questionnaire patterned after the Herzberg interview schedule but considerably shortened. Herzberg and his associates were concerned with the whole complex phenomena of factors, attitudes, and effects. This study is concerned only with the factors which give rise to the favorable and unfavorable attitudes. Also, since these data were collected by mail, there was the need to be as brief as possible.[3] The county extension leader was asked in the mailed questionnaire to recall a time since he had been a county extension leader when he had felt exceptionally good about his job. He was then asked to describe the event or series of events which had led up to this good feeling, who was involved, what happened, and about how long ago this occurred. He was also asked to explain why this event had made him feel good. He was then asked to think of a time during his career as a county extension leader when he had felt exceptionally bad about his job and to provide the same information about this feeling that he did about the good feeling.

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[1]Schwartz et al, p. 47.

[2]Herzberg.

[3]Claire Selltiz, Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), p. 242.

Job Performance

This study is concerned with the staff leadership phase of the county extension leader's role as a manager or administrator in the Cooperative Extension Service. The performance of this role was measured by asking the district extension agent, who is the county extension leader's immediate supervisor, to rate the county extension leaders in his district on how well they perform the leadership function. Following a meeting of the administrative and supervisory staff at Mississippi State University, the district agents were read the responsibilities of the county extension leader according to the job description of the Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service as they relate to staff leadership. The district agents were then asked to rate the county extension leaders in their district on the basis of "1" if the county leader performed the leadership function in an "above average" manner, a "2" if his performance was "average" and a "3" for "below average" performance.

Age

The questionnaire secured data about age by asking the county leader to check the appropriate category: less than 35, 35-44, 45-54, and 55 and over. Since there were only four county extension leaders who were less than 35 years of age this category was combined with the 35-44 category.

Tenure with the Organization

The county extension leader was asked to indicate the length of time that he had worked for the Cooperative Extension Service. For analysis purposes the following categories were established: 15 years and less, 16-20 years, 21-25 years, and 26 years and over. Since few county leaders attain this position with fewer than ten years of service with the organization, the first category is much greater in number of years included.

Tenure as a County Agent

Since turnover in the position of county extension leader is relatively small, only 20 had five years or less tenure as a county leader. Although the position of county leader is only nine years old, the county agricultural agent in each county had informally assumed some of the administrative duties for the county unit that are currently being performed by the county leader. All of the county leaders at present are also the county agricultural agent, therefore tenure was analyzed using the position of county agricultural agent. The following categories for analysis purposes were designed: six years and less; 7-15 years; and 16 years and over.

Graduate Study

The county leader was asked to check the appropriate blank indicating his status according to graduate study.

The following categories were used in the analysis of data: no graduate courses or graduate courses taken only as required by the organization for professional improvement; working toward a master's degree; and has a master's degree.

An attempt was also made to determine the effect of the field of study in the graduate school. If the county leader was working toward a master's degree or had earned a master's degree, he was asked to indicate what his field of study was. This was categorized as follows: no graduate work or work for professional improvement only; working toward a degree in social sciences or education; holds a master's degree in technical agriculture; holds a master's degree in social sciences or education. Although several of the county leaders held master's degrees in technical agriculture, none were presently pursuing a degree in this area.

Military Experience

The county leader was asked to indicate the highest rank that he reached if he had served in the armed forces. Military experience was categorized as follows: no military experience, military experience in the lower enlisted ranks, military experience as a non-commissioned officer, military experience as a commissioned officer.

Exposure to Management Training

The county leader was asked to indicate any training that he had received in management or administration. This

was dichotomized as: none or at least one course on the graduate level.

Data Analysis

Assumptions About People

The statements concerning Theory X and Theory Y on the Whitfield Scale are stated in such a manner that an agreement with one may be an indication of Theory Y while an agreement on another may indicate Theory X. In each case a disagreement will indicate the opposite theory. The scoring procedure developed by Whitfield[1] was used. "Strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" in support of Theory X was scored "1" while "agree" or "disagree" in support of Theory X was scored "2." "Undecided" was scored "3." "Agree" or "disagree" in support of Theory Y was scored "4," and "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" in support of Theory Y was scored "5."

An item analysis was performed. Guilford has indicated that the most common indices of validity of items were the proportion of respondents answering an item the same way and a correlation of the item with the total score.[2] The Biserial r appeared to be the most appropriate coefficient

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[1] Whitfield, p. 38.

[2] J. P. Guilford, Psychometric Methods (2nd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), p. 417.

of correlation to use in this case. The responses to the items were forced into a dichotomy of agree or disagree and correlated with the total score. According to Guilford, the Biserial r is appropriate when both variables are continuously measurable but one of the two has been forced into two categories.[1] Items which were answered in the same direction by 80 per cent or more of the respondents were discarded for non-discrimination. One item was discarded for correlating negatively with the total score. Ten items were discarded resulting in a scale with 20 items, thus making 20 the minimum score and 100 the maximum.

A frequency distribution was made of all of the scores. Those scoring in the lower one-third of the distribution were designated "Theory X" while those scoring in the upper one-third were labeled "Theory Y." The middle one-third were designated intermediates.

Guilford has indicated that the split-half, alternate forms, and retest are the common methods of estimating the reliability of tests.[2] Since the other two methods were not feasible in this study, the split-half method with odd-even items was used. Guilford favors the odd-even split

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[1]J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), p. 317.

[2]Guilford, Psychometric Methods, p. 373.

over other methods.[1] The Pearson's product-moment is the most commonly computed correlation coefficient[2] and was used to determine the split-half reliability. Since the long form of the test was divided in two portions to estimate the internal consistency, it was necessary to apply the Spearman-Brown formula to estimate the reliability of the longer form.[3] The reliability for the halves was .625 and corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula it was .77 for the total test.

Reliability by split-half was also estimated by the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, a non-parametric statistic.[4] The estimate of the reliability of the halves was .61 and corrected by Spearman-Brown it was .75.

Source of Job Satisfaction

The data to determine sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were collected as a response to an open-ended question. This procedure was developed by Herzberg et al.[5] as an adaptation of the procedure for collecting

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[1] Ibid., p. 377.

[2] Guilford, Fundamental Statistics . . ., p. 95.

[3] Guilford, Psychometric Methods, p. 374.

[4] Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956), pp. 202-213.

[5] Herzberg et al., pp. 3-29.

"critical incidents" developed by Flanagan.[1] In practice, an adaptation was necessary because many of the stories the Herzberg group collected were really sequences of events rather than a single incident.[2] In order to systematically analyze the content of the descriptions of the events, the Herzberg group used the technique of content analysis, as developed by students of political science and public opinion.[3]

In this study content analysis was applied to the events to determine the factors responsible for good and bad feelings of county extension leaders toward their jobs. Phillips treated the analysis of open-ended question replies as qualitative analysis,[4] which appears to be the same technique as content analysis. The first step listed by Phillips in coding responses to open-ended questions is one of establishing non-overlapping categories into which all of the responses can be coded.[5] The categories used by Herzberg et al.[6] and Clegg[7] served as the categories for this study.

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[1]John C. Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 51 (1954), pp. 327-358.

[2]Herzberg et al., p. 21.

[3]Ibid., p. 14.

[4]Bernard S. Phillips, Social Research Strategy and Tactics (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), pp. 221-226.

[5]Ibid., p. 222.

[6]Herzberg et al., p. 14.

[7]Denzil O. Clegg, "The Motivation of County Administrators in the Cooperative Extension Service" (unpublished

All of the categories of both Herzberg and Clegg were not represented in responses from the county extension leaders. Herzberg's categories in which responses were coded were as follows:

Achievement: Responses which indicated success or failure had contributed to the good or bad feeling were coded here.

Recognition: This category included responses which indicated that receiving recognition had resulted in good feelings or the failure to receive recognition had resulted in bad feelings.

Work Itself: The nature of the work itself resulted in feelings of satisfaction such as that received upon having assisted a disadvantaged family increase their income. Also, this category included situations where the nature of the work resulted in bad feelings.

Responsibility: This included responses which indicated that the responsibility associated with the position of county leader or county agent had resulted in good feelings toward the job.

Advancement: This included responses in which the county leader indicated that his promotion had resulted in good feelings or that his failure to be promoted had resulted in bad feelings.

Salary: Responses here included those which indicated that the salary received including raises in salary had resulted in good feelings and it also included those which indicated that level of salary or the failure to receive raises had resulted in negative feelings.

Relationships with Subordinates: This category included responses which indicated that relationships which the county leader had with his subordinates had resulted in good feelings. It also included those responses which indicated that relationships with

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Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1963), pp. 81-99.

subordinates; such as failure of subordinate to perform satisfactorily, inability to communicate with subordinates, or inability of subordinates to work together; had resulted in bad feelings.

Relationships with Superiors: This included responses in which strained relations with superiors had resulted in bad feelings.

Supervision: This category included those responses which indicated that practices of a particular supervisor or supervisors had resulted in bad feelings.

Organization Policy and Administration: Included in this category were responses which indicated that certain policies and their methods of being administered by the organization had resulted in bad feelings. Since the Cooperative Extension Service is a government organization, this category included policies of government which resulted in bad feelings.

Working Conditions: Coded in this category was the one response which indicated that the modern building in which the county extension staff was housed had been a source of good feelings because it meant that the county leader had "a good place to work."

Security: This category included the one response which indicated that learning about a plan which would affect the job security of the county leader had resulted in bad feelings.

Categories which Clegg added in which responses were coded included the following:

Relationships with Clientele: This included responses which indicated that relationships which the county leader had with members of the clientele group which he served had resulted in good or bad feelings.

Relationships with the County Board: As indicated earlier in this volume, the Cooperative Extension Service employees on the county level operate to a certain extent with the supervision and financial support of a county government, which is called the County Board of Supervisors or the County Board in Mississippi. Relationships which the county leader has which resulted

in good or bad feelings were coded in this category.[1]

The further analysis of these data such as breaking down the statements into thought units and establishing the direction of feelings was guided by Budd et al.[2] The thought units were placed into categories by direction of feelings, depending upon whether or not it resulted from a good feeling or a bad feeling. Many of the respondents' stories indicated that their good or bad feelings came from more than one factor at the same time. For example, a respondent may have received a good feeling from having achieved an important goal and at the same time been recognized for his success. Each of the factors listed above was described according to the percentage of the total number of respondents who indicated that this was an important factor in his good or bad feelings. A percentage was determined for each factor for positive feelings and another was determined for the negative feelings associated with this factor. The chi square test for determining the significance of the difference between two proportions was used.[3]

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[1]See Appendix B for examples of stories coded in these categories.

[2]Richard W. Budd, Robert K. Thorp, and Lewis Donohew, Content Analysis of Communications (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967).

[3]George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (2nd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), pp. 204-208.

Tests of Hypotheses

All hypotheses were tested with the use of the chi square test.[1] A problem which may be encountered with the chi square test is that of small expected frequencies. When this was encountered, categories were combined or Yates' correction for continuity was applied as suggested by Ferguson.[2] All hypotheses were rejected only if the probability of failing to reject the null hypothesis when it was not true was equal to or less than .05.

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[1]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956), pp. 175-179.

[2]Ferguson, pp. 206-208.

CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSIS

The principal purpose of this chapter is to present data testing the five hypotheses identified in Chapter IV. Another purpose is to describe the Mississippi county extension leaders according to their assumptions about the nature of people and according to their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The latter of these purposes will be presented first.

Descriptions of County Leaders

Assumptions About the Nature of People

With 20 statements on the scale used to measure assumptions about the nature of people and with five levels of agreement or disagreement, the scoring procedure used yielded a maximum possible score of 100 and a minimum of 20. As shown in Figure 2 the scores ranged from a low of 43 to a high of 84. The mean was 64.1, the mode was 66, and the median was 64. The standard deviation was 8.9. This resulted in a distribution similar to the normal curve with 53 of the 81 scores being within one standard deviation unit of the mean.

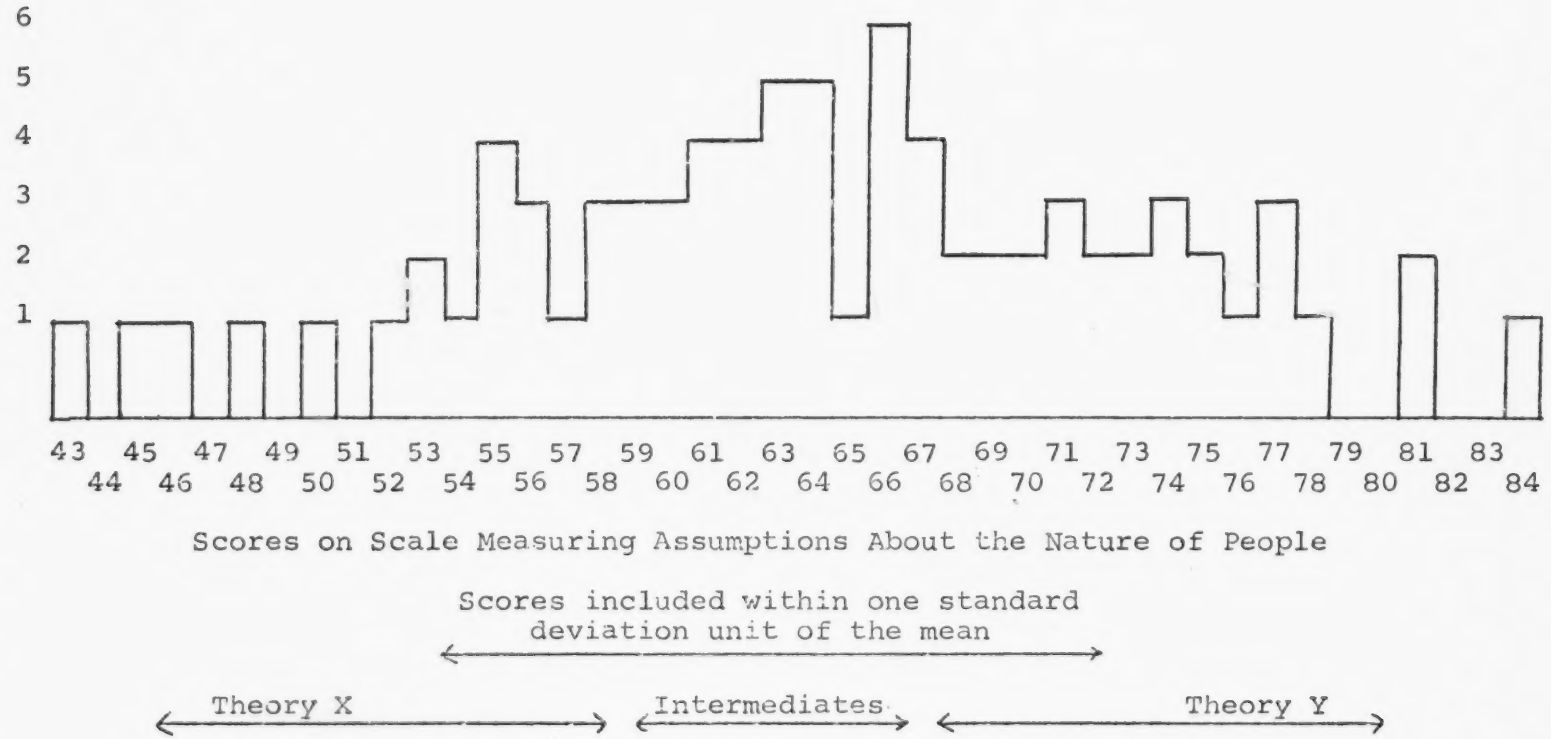
6
5
4
3
2
1
43 45 47 49 51 53 55 57 59 61 63 65 67 69 71 73 75 77 79 81 83
44 46 48 50 52 54 56 58 60 62 64 66 68 70 72 74 76 78 80 82 84
Scores on Scale Measuring Assumptions About the Nature of People
Scores included within one standard deviation unit of the mean
Theory X
Intermediates
Theory Y

Fig. 2.--Distribution of Scores on Scale Measuring Assumptions About the Nature of People

The scores were compared by districts with the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance by ranks being used to test the difference between districts.[1] With this test the scores were ranked from 1 to 81. Each score was replaced by a rank, and these ranks were summed by districts to produce R_j. The following formula was used to compute the statistic:

$$H = \frac{\frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{R_j^2}{n_j} - 3(N+1)}{1 - \frac{\sum T}{N^3 - N}}$$

The denominator of the above equation is a correction for tied ranks. The sum of the ranks squared divided by the number of observations in each district reveal some differences between the districts. These are as follows:

Northeast District -- 55,337

Northwest District -- 24,082

Southeast District -- 21,386

Southwest District -- 40,051

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[1]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956), pp. 184-193.

These differences were sufficient to produce an H value of 8.6266. When a Table of Critical Values of Chi Square was entered with this value and k-1 degrees of freedom (3), it was found that a hypothesis of no difference between districts could be rejected at the .05 level.

Sources of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

When the data about satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the job of county extension leader were plotted on a graph similar to those which have been used by Herzberg to present the results of several studies,[1] the distribution was comparable. (Figure 3.) Application of the chi square test for the significance of the difference between proportions[2] showed that six of the proportions were significantly different at the .05 level. These are the factors plotted in Figure 3. The proportions for both motivators and hygiene factors, the z-scores, and the level of significance are shown for all of the factors in Table 1.

As shown in Figure 3, the three motivators which contributed significantly more to good feelings than they did to

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[1]Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 1966), pp. 97-121.

[2]George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (2nd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), pp. 204-208.

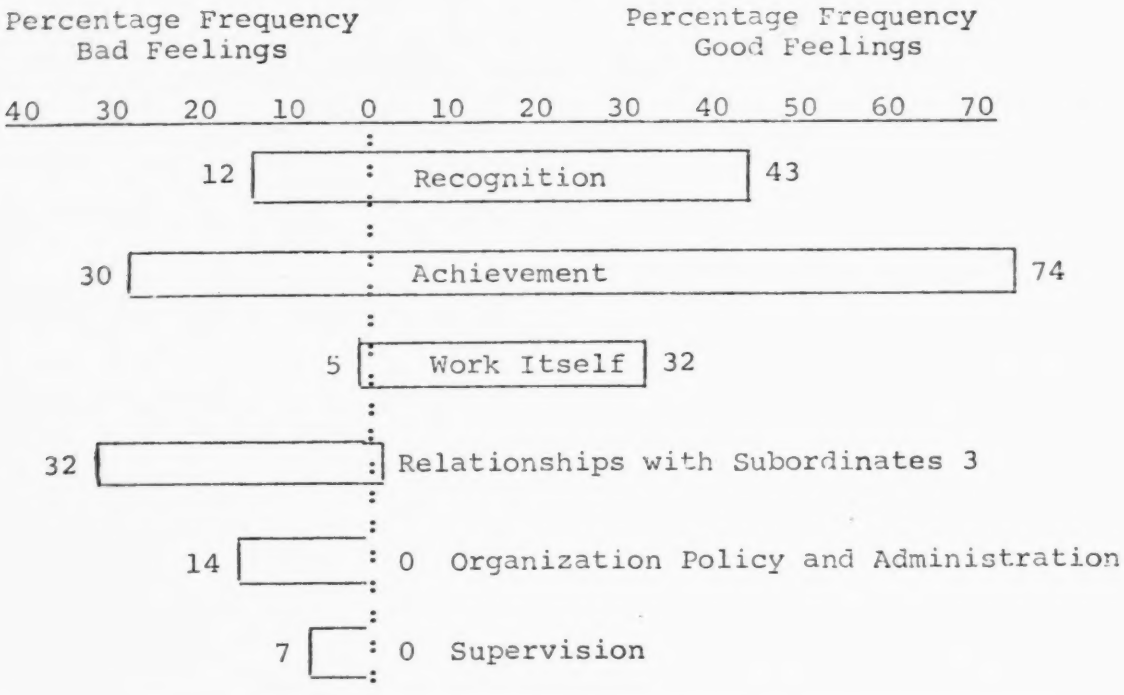

Fig. 3.--Comparison of Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers

bad feelings were recognition, achievement, and work itself. Three hygiene factors contributed significantly more to bad feelings than to good feelings, and these were relations with subordinates, organization policy and administration, and supervision. All of these factors were in the expected direction according to the motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg.

TABLE 1.--Motivators and hygiene factors with proportions of stories in which mentioned and z-scores and levels of significance of the difference between proportions

Factor	Proportion of Stories About Good Feelings Mentioning Factor	Proportion of Stories About Bad Feelings Mentioning Factor	Z-Score	Level of Significance
Recognition	.431	.123	3.8024	$<$.0002
Achievement	.738	.298	4.8888	$<$.0002
Work Itself	.323	.053	3.7427	$<$.0002
Responsibility	.046	.000	1.7692	.076
Advancement	.046	.018	.8750	.38
Salary	.030	.035	.1562	.28
Working Conditions	.015	.000	1.0714	.28
Relations With Subordinates	.030	.316	4.1911	$<$.0002
Relations With County Board	.015	.088	1.8863	.06
Relations With Clientele	.077	.193	1.8957	.058
Security	.000	.015	1.2765	.20
Organization Policy and Administration	.000	.140	3.1319	.002
Relations with Superiors	.000	.035	1.5695	.116
Supervision	.000	.070	2.2151	.027

Discussion

These findings are also consistent with those of Clegg, who studied county administrators in the Nebraska Cooperative Extension Service.[1] Achievement and recognition were significant motivators in Clegg's study. Achievement was mentioned in 70 per cent of the stories about good feelings. Since achievement appeared in 73.8 per cent of the stories in this study, achievement is apparently an extremely important source of job satisfaction for county administrators of the Cooperative Extension Service. This is a much higher level than was reported in nearly all of the studies reviewed by Herzberg.[2] Further similarities with Clegg's study are apparent in his finding that organization policy and administration, relations with subordinates, and supervision were significant sources of bad feelings. He also found working conditions, relations with superiors, and personal life to be important sources of dissatisfaction. Working conditions and personal life were not mentioned as hygiene factors in this study, but relations with superiors was of some importance. Work itself was not a source of job satisfaction in Clegg's study, bud did appear in this one as

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[1]Denzil O. Clegg, "The Motivation of County Administrators in the Cooperative Extension Service" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1963), pp. 81-99.

[2]Herzberg.

being significant. The importance of failure or lack of achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction is in disagreement with the Clegg study.

The Mississippi county extension leader can be described as an individual to whom successful completion of tasks, being recognized for his success, and having meaningful work are important to his job satisfaction. On the other hand, failure to achieve success, unhappy relations with subordinates, and supervision are important sources of dissatisfaction.

Tests of Hypotheses

This section will present the results of the tests of five hypotheses. Each of the five hypotheses will be stated and this will be followed by the results of the test of that hypothesis.

Personal Characteristics and Assumptions About the Nature of People

The first hypothesis, stated in null form, was: There is no relationship between age, tenure with the organization, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management or administration training and assumptions about the nature of people. The relationship between each of these factors and assumptions about the nature of people will be examined individually.

Age

As shown in Table 2, the null hypothesis of no relationship between age and assumptions about the nature of people cannot be rejected. While it had been expected that older county extension leaders would tend to be more conservative and hence more inclined to subscribe to Theory X, this was not the case. Apparently, assumptions about the nature of people is a randomly distributed variable among all the age groupings of county extension leaders in Mississippi.

TABLE 2.--Age of county extension leaders and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Age in Years							
	44 or Less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	8	32.0	13	35.1	5	26.3	26	32.1
Intermediate	10	40.0	11	29.8	8	42.1	29	35.8
Theory Y	7	35.0	13	35.1	6	31.6	26	32.1
Total	25	100.0	37	100.0	19	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.2175$ d.f. = 4 Not Significant

Tenure with the Organization

As shown in Table 3, the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure with the organization and

TABLE 3.--Tenure with the organization and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Tenure With the Organization in Years									
	0-15		16-20		21-25		Over 25		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	5	25.0	10	41.7	6	31.6	5	27.8	26	32.1
Intermediate	9	45.0	6	25.0	7	36.8	7	38.9	29	35.8
Theory Y	6	30.0	8	33.3	6	31.6	6	33.3	26	32.1
Total	20	100.0	24	100.0	19	100.0	18	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.4481$ d.f. = 6 Not Significant

assumptions about the nature of people cannot be rejected. Apparently, tenure with the organization like its closely related variable, age, is not associated with assumptions about the nature of people. Since tenure with the organization is likely to be closely related to the age of the county extension leader, the relationship between assumptions about the nature of people and age was investigated with tenure controlled. As shown in Table 4, all of the county leaders who were less than 45 years of age had 20 years of service or less. Nearly all of those 55 years of age and over had at least 21 years of service. The 45-54 age bracket was split approximately half and half with 20 years of service or less and 21 years or more. No apparent differences in relationship were observable.

TABLE 4.--Age and tenure with the organization as related to assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Age in Years: 45 or Less, Tenure: 0-20 Years N	%	45 or Less, Tenure: Over 20 Yrs. N	%	45 to 54, Tenure: 0-20 Years N	%	45 to 54, Tenure: Over 20 Yrs. N	%	55 and Over, Tenure: 0-20 Years N	%	55 and Over, Tenure: 20 Years Over N	%	Total N	%
Theory X	8	32.0	0	0.0	6	33.3	7	36.8	1	100.0	4	22.2	26	32.1
Intermediate	10	40.0	0	0.0	5	27.8	6	31.6	0	0.0	8	44.5	29	35.8
Theory Y	7	28.0	0	0.0	7	38.9	6	31.6	0	0.0	6	33.3	26	32.1
Total	25	100.0	19	0.0	18	100.0	19	100.0	1	100.0	19	100.0	81	100.0

Tenure as a County Agent

The null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and assumptions about the nature of people cannot be rejected at the .05 level. However, there was a noticeable tendency for county agents with six years of experience or less to subscribe to Theory X or intermediate orientations to a larger degree than county leaders with more years of experience, as is shown in Table 5. This could indicate that experience in working with people and in supervising professional employees tends to result in stronger Theory Y orientations. It could also be an indication that the administrative climate of the Cooperative Extension Service is not favorable for an individual with Theory X orientations and that these individuals tend to seek employment in other organizations.

TABLE 5.--Tenure as a county agent and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Tenure as a County Agent in Years							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 and Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	8	33.3	11	32.4	7	30.4	26	32.1
Intermediate	13	54.2	8	23.5	8	34.8	29	35.8
Theory Y	3	12.5	15	44.1	8	34.8	26	32.1
Total	24	100.0	34	100.0	23	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 8.1955$ d.f. = 4 Not Significant

When the relationship of tenure as a county agent was examined by age, the frequencies were too small to apply a chi square test; but a similar pattern was found to that with age and tenure with the organization. The relationship between tenure as a county agent and age was not as marked, however; and there appeared to be a tendency for county agents with more tenure to be more inclined to subscribe to Theory Y for all age groups. This relationship is shown in Table 6.

Graduate Study

As shown in Table 7, the null hypothesis of no relationship between graduate study and assumptions about the nature of people can be rejected at the .05 level in a relationship which approaches the .02 level. This finding indicates that county leaders who hold master's degrees are more inclined to hold assumptions about the nature of people which are consistent with Theory Y than are those county leaders who have not achieved a master's degree. It is impossible to determine from these data whether the studying toward a master's degree results in an increasing Theory Y orientation, or whether people with Theory Y orientations are more inclined to study toward master's degrees. Some evidence is indicated in the "Working Toward Master's Degree" category to imply that the former explanation is correct. All of the cells in this category resulted in expected

TABLE 6.--Age and tenure as a county agent as related to assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Age in Years																			
	44 or Less						45-54						55 and Over							
	Tenure						Tenure						Tenure							
	0-6		7-15		Over 15		0-6		7-15		Over 15		0-6		7-15		Over 15		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	5	38.5	3	25.0	0	0.0	3	37.5	6	33.3	4	36.4	0	0.0	2	50.0	3	25.0	26	32.1
Intermediate	6	46.2	4	33.3	0	0.0	5	62.5	3	16.7	3	27.3	2	66.7	1	25.0	5	41.7	29	35.8
Theory Y	2	15.3	5	41.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	50.0	4	36.4	1	33.3	1	25.0	4	33.3	26	32.1
Total	13	100.0	12	100.0	0	00.0	8	100.0	18	100.0	11	100.0	3	100.0	4	100.0	12	100.0	81	100.0

TABLE 7.--Graduate study and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Graduate Study: None or for Professional Improvement N	%	Working Toward Master's N	%	Has Master's Degree N	%	Total N	%
Theory X	17	32.7	6	54.5	3	16.7	26	32.1
Intermediate	21	40.4	4	36.4	4	22.2	29	35.8
Theory Y	14	26.9	1	9.1	11	61.1	26	32.1
Total	52	100.0	11	100.0	18	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 11.2365$ d.f. = 4 $P < .05$

frequencies of less than 5 for the chi square test. Ferguson has indicated that this test can safely be used with degrees of freedom of at least 2 provided the expected values are at least 2.[1] However, to prevent using a table with expected values of 5 or less, Table 8 was constructed omitting the "Working Toward Master's" category. Again the null hypothesis of no relationship can be rejected at the .05 level.

The influence of field of study in the graduate program was examined, but the problem of extremely small numbers made it necessary to combine categories to administer the chi square test. Any logical combination of categories

[1]Ferguson, p. 207.

TABLE 8.--Holding a master's degree and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Holding a Master's Degree: No N	No %	Yes N	Yes %	Total N	Total %
Theory X	17	32.7	3	16.7	20	28.6
Intermediate	21	40.4	4	22.2	25	35.7
Theory Y	14	26.9	11	61.1	25	35.7
Total	52	100.0	18	100.0	70	100.0

$\chi^2 = 6.9111$ d.f. = 2 $P < .05$

would result in a table comparing those working toward master's degrees with those who already have master's degrees, rather than a comparison on field of study. Therefore, these data are presented in Table 9 without statistical test information.

TABLE 9.--Field of graduate study and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Field of Study: Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed. N	%	Master's in Agriculture N	%	Master's Soc. Sci. or Ed. N	%	Total N	%
Theory X	6	54.5	1	14.3	2	18.2	9	31.0
Intermediate	4	36.4	2	28.6	2	18.2	8	27.6
Theory Y	1	9.1	4	57.1	7	63.6	12	41.4
Total	11	100.0	7	100.0	11	100.0	29	100.0

Military Experience

It was expected that experience in the military with its use of authoritarian methods much like those in McGregor's Theory X would be related to assumptions held about the nature of people. However, as indicated in Table 10, the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected. There may have been a slight tendency for those county leaders who have served in the armed forces as officers or non-commissioned officers to be more oriented toward Theory X than those who either served as enlisted men or did not serve, but the relationship was slight.

TABLE 10.--Military experience as an officer or non-commissioned officer and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Military Experience: None or Lower Enlisted Ranks N	%	Non-Com. or Commissioned Officer N	%	Total N	%
Theory X	11	30.6	15	33.3	26	32.1
Intermediate	11	30.6	18	40.0	29	35.8
Theory Y	14	38.8	12	26.7	26	32.1
Total	36	100.0	45	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.0057$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Management Training

It was expected that exposure to management training would tend to cause county extension leaders to develop orientations about the nature of people consistent with Theory Y. As indicated by Table 11, the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected.

TABLE 11.--Management training and assumptions about the nature of people

Assumptions About People	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	6	27.3	20	33.9	26	32.1
Intermediate	10	45.4	19	32.2	29	35.8
Theory Y	6	27.3	20	33.9	26	32.1
Total	22	100.0	59	100.0	81	100.0

χ^2 = 1.5232 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Summary

In summary, it can be concluded that only that portion of the null hypothesis which deals with graduate study can be rejected. While it was found that county leaders who have master's degrees were significantly more likely to subscribe to Theory Y than were county leaders who do not hold master's degrees, no such relationship was found for the other variables examined in this section.

Personal Characteristics and Source of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

The second hypothesis, stated in null form, was: There is no relationship between age, tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management training and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction according to the motivation-hygiene theory.

All of the county extension leaders who returned the questionnaire completed the section designed to measure their assumptions about the nature of people, however only 65 of the 81 completed the section which asked them to recall a time since they had been a county leader when they had felt exceptionally good about their job. Only 57 completed the section requesting them to recall a time and describe it when they had felt exceptionally bad since they had been county leaders.

The relationship between personal characteristics and sources of job satisfaction will be presented first. A summary of factors contributing to job satisfaction will first be presented for each of the personal characteristics studied. Following this for each of the personal characteristics, the three motivators of recognition, achievement, and work itself will be examined to determine possible relationships between these as sources of job satisfaction and the

various personal characteristics. These three motivators will be used because the small number of county leaders who received satisfaction from the other motivators prevent statistical analysis. A similar procedure will be followed for hygiene factors. However, only the hygiene factors of achievement (failure) and relations with subordinates will be examined to determine the significance of the relationship. Analysis was again limited to these two because of the small number of county leaders who received dissatisfaction from the other factors.

Personal Characteristics and Source of Job Satisfaction

Age and Source of Job Satisfaction

Table 12 presents a summary of the factors which contributed to feelings of job satisfaction by age.

Age and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--When those county leaders who mentioned items in their stories which were coded as recognition are compared with those who did not mention recognition, the null hypothesis of no relationship between age and recognition as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected, as shown in Table 13. Recognition appears to be equally important at all ages.

Age and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between achievement as a source of job satisfaction and age cannot be rejected.

TABLE 12.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction of county leaders by age

	Age in Years			
	44 or Less	45-54	55 & Over	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	9	13	6	28
Achievement	14	26	8	48
Work Itself	5	12	4	21
Responsibility	1	0	2	3
Advancement	0	1	2	3
Salary	0	1	1	2
Working Conditions	1	0	0	1
Relations with Subordinates	0	2	0	2
Relations with County Board	0	1	0	1
Relations with Clientele	2	3	0	5
No Responses	7	3	6	16

However, there was a slight tendency for achievement to be less important as a source of job satisfaction for county leaders who were 55 years of age and over. These data are shown in Table 14.

Age and Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between age of the county leader and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

TABLE 13.--Age and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Age in Years							
	44 or Less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	50.0	13	38.2	6	46.2	28	43.1
No	9	50.0	21	61.8	7	53.8	37	56.9
Total	18	100.0	34	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.0

χ^2 = .8035 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

TABLE 14.--Age and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Age in Years							
	44 or Less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	14	77.8	26	76.5	8	61.5	48	73.8
No	4	22.2	8	23.5	5	38.5	17	26.2
Total	18	100.0	34	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.0

χ^2 = 1.2837 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

cannot be rejected, as indicated in Table 15. Work itself appears to be equally important as a source of job satisfaction for all of the age groups studied.

TABLE 15.--Age and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Age in Years							
	44 or Less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	5	27.8	12	35.3	4	30.8	21	32.3
No	13	72.2	22	64.7	9	69.2	44	67.7
Total	18	100.0	34	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.0

χ^2 = .3110 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure with Organization and Source of Job Satisfaction

The response to all of the factors according to tenure with the organization is shown in Table 16.

Tenure with Organization and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--As indicated in Table 17, the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure with the organization and recognition as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected.

Tenure with Organization and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--An examination of the relationship between tenure with the organization and achievement as a source of job satisfaction indicates that the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected. These data are presented in Table 18.

TABLE 16.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction according to tenure with the organization

Factors	Tenure with the Organization in Years				
	0-15	16-20	21-25	Over 25	Total
	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	8	9	5	6	28
Achievement	13	14	12	9	48
Work Itself	5	6	7	3	21
Responsibility	1	1	0	1	3
Advancement	0	0	1	2	3
Salary	0	1	1	0	2
Work Conditions	0	1	0	0	1
Relations with Subordinates	0	0	2	0	2
Relations with County Board	0	0	1	0	1
Relations with Clientele	3	1	1	0	5
No Response	3	6	2	5	16

TABLE 17.--Tenure with the organization and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Tenure with the Organization in Years									
	0-15		16-20		21-25		Over 25		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	8	45.1	9	50.0	5	29.4	6	46.2	28	43.1
No	9	54.9	9	50.0	12	70.6	7	53.8	37	56.9
Total	17	100.0	18	100.0	17	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.0

χ^2 = 1.7633 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

TABLE 18.--Tenure with the organization and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Tenure with the Organization in Years									
	0-15		16-20		21-25		Over 25		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	13	76.5	14	77.8	12	70.6	9	69.2	48	73.8
No	4	23.5	4	22.2	5	29.4	4	30.8	17	26.2
Total	17	100.0	18	100.0	17	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.2

χ^2 = .4435 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure with Organization and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction.--As indicated in Table 19, the null hypothesis of no relationship between work itself as a source of job satisfaction and tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service cannot be rejected.

TABLE 19.--Tenure with the organization and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Tenure with the Organization in Years									
	0-15		16-20		21-25		Over 25		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	5	29.4	6	33.3	7	41.2	3	23.1	21	32.3
No	12	70.6	12	66.7	10	58.8	10	76.9	44	67.7
Total	17	100.0	18	100.0	17	100.0	13	100.0	65	100.0

χ^2 = 1.1881 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure as a County Agent and
Source of Job Satisfaction

Table 20 presents a summary of the factors which contributed to feelings of job satisfaction by tenure as a county agent.

TABLE 20.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction by tenure as a county agent

Factors	Tenure as a County Agent in Years			
	6 or Less	7 to 15	16 and Over	Total
	N	N	N	N
Recognition	7	13	8	28
Achievement	16	22	10	48
Work Itself	7	8	6	21
Responsibility	2	0	1	3
Advancement	1	0	2	3
Salary	2	0	0	2
Working Conditions	0	1	0	1
Relations With Subordinates	0	2	0	2
Relations With County Board	0	1	0	1
Relations With Clientele	2	3	0	5
No Response	5	6	5	16

Tenure as a County Agent and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The relationship between tenure as a county agent and the mentioning of recognition as a source of job satisfaction is shown in Table 21. These data indicate that the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and recognition as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected.

TABLE 21.--Tenure as a county agent and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Tenure as a County Agent in Years							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	36.8	13	46.4	8	44.4	28	43.1
No	12	63.2	15	53.6	10	55.6	37	56.9
Total	19	100.0	28	100.0	18	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .4347$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure as a County Agent and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--Table 22 shows that the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and achievement as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected at the .05 level. A relationship approaching significance at the .10 level was noted, however. Agents with less than 16 years of service tended to name achievement as a source of job satisfaction more often than did those with

longer service. This may be an indication that agents with relatively few years of service are still striving to establish themselves as a success, while county agents with longer service perceive themselves to have achieved success. Also, many of the avenues of promotion have been closed to this group because of age.

TABLE 22.--Tenure as a county agent and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Tenure as a County Agent in Years							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	16	84.2	22	78.6	10	55.6	48	73.8
No	3	15.8	6	21.4	8	44.4	17	26.2
Total	19	100.0	28	100.0	18	100.0	65	100.2

χ^2 = 4.5345 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure as a County Agent and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and work itself as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected, as is shown in Table 23.

Graduate Study and Source of Job Satisfaction

Table 24 shows a summary of the factors contributing to job satisfaction by graduate study. It is interesting to

TABLE 23.--Tenure as a county agent and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Tenure as a County Agent in Years							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	36.8	8	28.6	6	33.3	21	32.3
No	12	63.2	20	71.4	12	66.7	44	67.7
Total	19	100.0	28	100.0	18	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .3691$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

TABLE 24.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction according to graduate study

Factors	Graduate Study			
	None or for Professional Improvement	Working Toward Master's	Has Master's Degree	Total
	N	N	N	N
Recognition	14	4	10	28
Achievement	31	8	9	48
Work Itself	12	3	6	21
Responsibility	2	0	1	3
Advancement	1	0	2	3
Salary	1	0	1	2
Working Conditions	0	0	1	1
Relations With Subordinates	1	0	1	2
Relations With Clientele	4	0	1	5
No Response	13	2	1	16

note that only one county leader who holds a master's degree and only two of those who are studying toward a master's degree failed to respond to the question about a time when they had felt exceptionally good about their job. This could mean that county leaders who are pursuing graduate study or who have earned master's degrees are more inclined to respond to an open-ended question on a self-report questionnaire. It could also mean that they more readily identify with one who is also pursuing graduate study.

Graduate Study and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--Table 25 indicates that the null hypothesis of no relationship between graduate study and recognition as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected at the .05 level. However, there was a tendency for county leaders who have master's degrees to receive job satisfaction from recognition to a greater extent than those who do not have master's degrees.

Graduate Study and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction. Table 26 presents the relationship between graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction. While the chi square value indicates that the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected at the .05 level, the obtained value lacked only .26 being large enough to do so. This value was obtained with two of the six cells having expected frequencies of less than 5, however

TABLE 25.--Graduate study and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Graduate Study: None or for Professional Improvement N	%	Working Toward Master's N	%	Has Master's Degree N	%	Total N	%
Yes	14	35.9	4	44.4	10	58.8	28	43.1
No	25	64.1	5	55.6	7	41.2	37	56.9
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	17	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.5742$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

TABLE 26.--Graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Graduate Study: None or for Professional Improvement N	%	Working Toward Master's N	%	Has Master's Degree N	%	Total N	%
Yes	31	79.5	8	88.9	9	52.9	48	73.8
No	8	20.5	1	11.1	8	47.1	17	26.2
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	17	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 5.7299$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Ferguson indicated that with at least two degrees of freedom such a case was satisfactory.[1] There was a tendency for

[1] Ibid.

county leaders who do not have master's degrees to receive job satisfaction to a greater extent from achievement than was the case with those who hold master's degrees.

Since expected frequencies were encountered that were below 5, additional investigations were made by eliminating and by combining categories. When the category of "Working Toward Master's" was eliminated, a relationship which approached significance at the .05 level was obtained. This relationship is shown in Table 27. Combining the "Working Toward Master's" category with the "None or for Professional Improvement" category resulted in one cell of the four cell table having an expected frequency below 5. This necessitated the application of Yates' correction for continuity as indicated by Ferguson.[1] As Table 28 shows, this relationship was significant at the .05 level after Yates' correction had been applied. This indicates that a qualified rejection of the null hypothesis of no relationship between graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction can be made. The conclusion can be drawn that county leaders who hold master's degrees do not perceive achievement as a source of job satisfaction as often as do county leaders who have not secured master's degrees.

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[1] Ibid.

TABLE 27.--Graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Graduate Study: None or for Professional Improvement N	%	Has Master's Degree N	%	Total N	%
Yes	31	79.5	9	52.9	40	71.4
No	8	20.5	8	47.1	16	28.6
Total	39	100.0	17	100.0	56	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.6895$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

TABLE 28.--Holding a master's degree and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Holds a Master's Degree: No N	%	Yes N	%	Total N	%
Yes	39	81.3	9	52.9	48	73.8
No	9	18.7	8	47.1	17	26.2
Total	48	100.0	17	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.9806$ d.f. = 1 $P < .05$

Graduate Study and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction.--As shown in Table 29, the null hypothesis of no relationship between work itself as a source of job satisfaction and graduate study cannot be rejected.

TABLE 29.--Graduate study and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Graduate Study: None or for Professional Improvement		Working Toward Master's		Has Master's Degree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	12	30.8	3	33.3	6	35.3	21	32.3
No	27	69.2	6	66.7	11	64.7	44	67.7
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	17	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .1142$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Field of Graduate Study and Source of Job Satisfaction

The relationship of field of study in the graduate school and source of job satisfaction was also made. A summary of the sources of job satisfaction according to field of graduate study is shown in Table 30.

Field of Graduate Study and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--Difficulty with small numbers precluded the testing of the relationship between field of graduate study and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

TABLE 30.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction according to field of graduate study

Factors	Field of Graduate Study				
	No Work on Master's	Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.	Master's in Tech. Agric.	Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.	Total
	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	14	4	3	7	28
Achievement	31	8	5	4	48
Work Itself	12	3	4	2	21
Responsibility	2	0	0	1	3
Advancement	1	0	0	2	3
Salary	1	0	0	1	2
Working Conditions	0	1	0	0	1
Relations With Subordinates	1	0	1	0	2
Relations With County Board	1	0	0	0	1
Relations With Clientele	4	0	0	1	5
No Response	13	2	1	0	16

as shown in Table 31. The extremely small numbers in four of the six cells made the use of the chi square doubtful, but since small frequencies tend to cause excessively large chi square values, the null hypothesis of no relationship between field of graduate study and recognition as a source

TABLE 31.--Field of graduate study and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Field of Graduate Study									
	No Work on Master's		Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Master's in Tech. Agric.		Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	14	35.9	4	44.4	3	50.0	7	63.6	28	43.1
No	25	64.1	5	55.6	3	50.0	4	36.4	37	56.9
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	6	100.0	11	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.8977$ d.f. = 3 Not Significant

of job satisfaction cannot be rejected. A meaningful combination of categories to secure larger expected frequencies was not possible.

Field of Graduate Study and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--Evidence is presented in Table 32 to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between field of graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction. However, some caution must be exercised in interpreting these results since the expected frequencies dropped below 5 in three of the six cells. One was below the value of 2. A cautious interpretation indicates that achievement is a less important source of job satisfaction for county leaders with master's degrees in social science or education than it is for county leaders in other categories.

TABLE 32.--Field of graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Field of Graduate Study									
	None		Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Master's in Tech. Agric.		Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	31	79.5	8	88.9	5	88.3	4	36.4	48	73.8
No	8	20.5	1	11.1	1	16.7	7	63.6	17	26.2
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	6	100.0	11	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 9.9346$ d.f. = 3 $P < .02$

Field of Graduate Study and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction.--When work itself as a source of job satisfaction is compared with field of graduate study, the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected. Again there appeared to be a trend for county leaders with master's degrees in social science or education to receive job satisfaction from the work itself less than was the case for county leaders in other categories. Again, small numbers with expected frequencies below 5 in four of the eight cells limit the confidence that can be placed in this finding. These data are presented in Table 33.

TABLE 33.--Field of graduate study and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Field of Graduate Study									
	None None		Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Master's in Tech. Agric.		Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	12	30.8	3	33.3	4	66.7	2	18.2	21	32.3
No	27	69.2	6	66.7	2	33.3	9	81.8	44	67.7
Total	39	100.0	9	100.0	6	100.0	11	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 4.5007$ d.f. = 3 Not Significant

Military Experience and Source of Job Satisfaction

A summary of the responses to all of the job satisfaction factors as related to military experience is presented in Table 34.

Military Experience and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--As shown in Table 34, the null hypothesis of no relationship between recognition as a source of job satisfaction and experience in the military cannot be rejected. Recognition did seem to be slightly less important for the former non-commissioned officer than for other categories.

Military Experience and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship

TABLE 34.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction according to military experience

	Military Experience				
	None	Lower Enlisted	Non-Com. Officer	Comm. Officer	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	7	7	9	5	28
Achievement	11	8	22	7	48
Work Itself	2	4	10	5	21
Responsibility	2	1	0	0	3
Advancement	2	0	1	0	3
Salary	0	1	1	0	2
Working Conditions	0	0	0	1	1
Relations With Subordinates	1	0	1	0	2
Relations With County Board	1	0	0	0	1
Relations With Clientele	2	1	2	0	5
No Response	6	3	3	4	16

between achievement as a source of job satisfaction and military experience cannot be rejected as is shown in Table 36.

Military Experience and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between military experience and work itself as a source of

TABLE 35.--Military experience and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Military Experience									
	None		Lower Enlisted		Non-Com. Officer		Com. Officer		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	43.8	7	63.6	9	32.1	5	50.0	28	43.1
No	9	56.2	4	36.4	19	67.9	5	50.0	37	56.9
Total	16	100.0	11	100.0	28	100.0	10	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.5659$ d.f. = 3 Not Significant

TABLE 36.--Military experience and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Military Experience									
	None		Lower Enlisted		Non-Com. Officer		Com. Officer		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	68.8	8	72.7	22	78.6	7	70.0	48	73.8
No	5	31.2	3	27.3	6	21.4	3	30.0	17	26.2
Total	16	100.0	11	100.0	28	100.0	10	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .6073$ d.f. = 3 Not Significant

job satisfaction cannot be rejected at the .05 level. However, there appeared to be a trend for work itself to increase in importance as a source of job satisfaction as involvement in military service increased from no service to

service as a commissioned officer. Two of the eight cells in this table were below the value of 5, which could have resulted in an erroneously high chi square value. These relationships are shown in Table 37.

TABLE 37.--Military experience and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Military Experience									
	None		Lower Enlisted		Non-Com. Officer		Com. Officer		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	2	12.5	4	36.4	10	35.7	5	50.0	21	32.3
No	14	87.5	7	63.6	18	64.3	5	50.0	44	67.3
Total	16	100.0	11	100.0	28	100.0	10	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 4.6359$ d.f. = 3 Not Significant

Management Training and Source of Job Satisfaction

Table 38 shows the response to job satisfaction factors according to exposure to management training.

Management Training and Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between management training and recognition as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected at the .05 level, but a tendency was noticed in Table 39 for county leaders who had been exposed to management training to name recognition as a source of job satisfaction as compared with those who had not received management training.

TABLE 38.--Factors contributing to job satisfaction according to management training

	Management Training		
	No	Yes	Total
Factors	N	N	N
Recognition	5	21	26
Achievement	11	37	48
Work Itself	8	13	21
Responsibility	1	2	3
Advancement	1	2	3
Salary	1	1	2
Working Conditions	0	1	1
Relations With Subordinates	1	1	2
Relations With County Board	1	0	1
Relations With Clientele	1	4	5
No Response	5	11	16

TABLE 39.--Management training and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
Recognition Mentioned	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	5	29.4	23	47.9	28	43.1
No	12	70.6	25	52.1	37	56.9
Total	17	100.0	48	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.7194$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Management Training and Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction.--The null hypothesis of no relationship between management training and achievement as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected. Because of a frequency below the value of 5 in Table 40, Yates' correction for continuity was applied.

TABLE 40.--Management training and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	64.7	37	77.1	48	73.8
No	6	35.3	11	22.9	17	26.2
Total	17	100.0	48	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .5002$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Management Training and Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction. -The null hypothesis of no relationship between management training and work itself as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected at the .05 level, as shown in Table 41. However, there was a tendency for county leaders who had not had courses in management or administration to receive job satisfaction from the work itself to a greater extent than for county leaders who had been so trained.

TABLE 41.--Management training and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	8	47.1	13	27.1	21	32.3
No	9	52.9	35	72.9	44	67.7
Total	17	100.0	48	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.2754$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Summary

Only two significant relationships were found between personal characteristics and sources of job satisfaction. Both of these related to graduate study. County agents who do not hold master's degree named achievement as a source of job satisfaction significantly more often than did county agents who do hold master's degrees. The second significant finding also involved achievement. County leaders with degrees in social sciences or education named achievement significantly less often as a source of job satisfaction than did county leaders in other classifications. Apparently, county leaders with degrees in social science or education were responsible for much of the relationship observed between achievement as a source of job satisfaction and having a master's degree.

While not significant at the .05 level, trends were observed in certain other relationships studied. There was a tendency for county agents with fewer years of tenure to receive job satisfaction more often from achievement than county agents with more years of tenure. Recognition appeared to be a more important source of job satisfaction for county leaders with master's degrees than it did not county leaders without master's degrees. Work itself appeared as a more important source of job satisfaction for county leaders who did not have a master's degree in social science or education. Work itself as a source of job satisfaction became increasingly important as degree of involvement in military became greater, being relatively unimportant for those with no military service and becoming more important for those who had served as a commissioned officer. Recognition appeared to be more important as a source of job satisfaction to those county leaders who had been exposed to management or administration training than it was for those who had received no management training. On the other hand, work itself appeared to be more important as a source of job satisfaction to those county leaders who had not received management training than it was to those who had.

Personal Characteristics and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Age and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Table 42 presents a summary of the factors which contributed to feelings of job dissatisfaction by age.

TABLE 42.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction by age

	Age in Years			
	44 or Less	45-54	55 & Over	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	1	5	1	7
Achievement	6	7	4	17
Work Itself	2	1	0	3
Advancement	0	1	0	1
Salary	0	1	1	2
Relations With Subordinates	7	8	3	18
Relations With County Board	1	3	1	5
Relations With Clientele	1	8	4	11
Security	1	0	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	4	4	0	8
Relations With Superiors	0	2	0	2
Supervision	1	2	1	4
No Response	10	7	7	24

Age and Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 43, the null hypothesis of no relationship between age and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction cannot be rejected.

TABLE 43.--Age and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Age in Years							
	44 or less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	37.5	7	21.8	4	44.4	17	29.8
No	10	62.5	25	78.2	5	55.5	40	70.2
Total	16	100.0	32	100.0	9	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.2581$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Age and Relations with Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--The relationship between age and relationships with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction is shown in Table 44. The null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected. There was some indication that a higher percentage of the younger county extension leaders received dissatisfaction from relations with subordinates than did older county leaders.

TABLE 44.--Age and relations with subordinates as a source of dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Age in Years							
	44 or Less		45-54		55 & Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	41.2	8	27.6	3	27.3	18	31.2
No	10	58.8	21	72.4	8	72.7	39	68.8
Total	17	100.0	29	100.0	11	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.0287$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure with the Organization and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Table 45 gives the summary of sources of dissatisfaction as related to tenure with the organization.

Tenure with Organization and Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction.--Table 46 shows that the null hypothesis of no relationship between achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction and tenure with the organization cannot be rejected. Because of small frequencies, it was necessary to combine frequencies into "20 years or less" and "21 years and over."

Tenure with Organization and Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction.--An examination of the relationship between tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction shows that the null hypothesis of no

TABLE 45.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction according to tenure with the organization

	Tenure with Organization in Years				
	0-15	16-20	21-25	Over 25	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	2	1	4	0	7
Achievement	5	4	5	3	17
Work Itself	1	2	0	0	3
Advancement	0	1	0	0	1
Salary	0	0	1	1	2
Relations With Subordinates	5	7	3	3	18
Relations With County Board	1	1	2	1	5
Relations With Clientele	3	1	5	2	11
Security	1	0	0	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	3	2	1	2	8
Relations With Superiors	0	0	1	1	2
Supervision	1	1	0	2	4
No Response	5	8	4	7	24

relationship cannot be rejected at the .05 level. There was a tendency for those county leaders with less than 21 years of service to indicate that relations with their subordinates

TABLE 46.--Tenure with the organization and achievement as a source of dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Tenure with Organization in Years					
	Less Than 21		21 and Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	29.0	8	30.8	17	29.8
No	22	71.0	18	69.2	40	70.2
Total	31	100.0	26	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = .0133$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

was a source of dissatisfaction more often than was the case with county leader with 21 or more years of service. It was again necessary to combine some categories because of small numbers. This relationship is shown in Table 47.

TABLE 47.--Tenure with the cooperative extension service and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Tenure with Organization in Years					
	Less Than 21		21 and Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	12	38.7	6	23.1	18	31.2
No	19	61.3	20	76.9	39	68.8
Total	31	100.0	26	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.5843$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Tenure as a County Agent and Sources of Dissatisfaction

Table 48 presents the summary of responses to factors providing dissatisfaction according to tenure as a county agent.

TABLE 48.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction by tenure as a county agent

	Tenure as a County Agent in Years			
	6 or Less	7 to 15	16 and Over	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	2	4	1	7
Achievement	4	9	4	17
Work Itself	3	0	0	3
Advancement	0	1	0	1
Salary	1	0	1	2
Relations With Subordinates	5	10	3	18
Relations With County Board	2	0	3	5
Relations With Clientele	2	5	4	11
Security	0	1	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	1	3	4	8
Relations With Superiors	0	1	1	2
Supervision	1	2	1	4
No Response	8	10	6	24

Tenure as a County Agent and Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 49 the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and achievement as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected.

TABLE 49.--Tenure as a county agent and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Tenure as a County Agent							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 and Over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	4	25.0	9	36.0	4	25.0	17	29.8
No	12	75.0	16	64.0	12	75.0	40	70.2
Total	16	100.0	25	100.0	16	100.0	57	100.0

χ^2 = .8721 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Tenure as a County Agent and Relations with Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As Table 50 shows, the null hypothesis of no relationship between tenure as a county agent and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction cannot be rejected. However, there appeared to be a tendency for county agents with a medium number of years of service to have dissatisfaction with their relations with their subordinates more often than those with either less or more tenure as a county agent.

TABLE 50.--Tenure as a county agent and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Tenure as a County Agent							
	6 or Less		7 to 15		16 and over		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	5	31.3	10	41.7	3	17.6	18	31.2
No	11	68.7	14	58.3	14	82.4	39	68.8
Total	16	100.0	24	100.0	17	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.5622$ d.f. = 2 P .30

Graduate Study and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Table 51 shows a summary of the factors contributing to job satisfaction by amount of graduate study.

Graduate Study and Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 52, the null hypothesis of no relationship between achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction and graduate study cannot be rejected at the .05 level. There was a slight tendency, however, for county leaders with master's degrees to receive job dissatisfaction from achievement or failure less often than county leaders who do not hold master's degrees. Because of the small numbers involved, graduate study was dichotomized into those county leaders who had earned a master's degree and those who had not done so.

TABLE 51.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction by graduate study

Factors	Graduate Study			
	None or for Professional Improvement	Working Toward Master's	Has Master's Degree	Total
	N	N	N	N
Recognition	4	0	3	7
Achievement	11	3	3	17
Work Itself	2	1	0	3
Advancement	1	0	0	1
Salary	1	0	1	2
Relations With Subordinates	9	3	6	18
Relations With County Board	4	0	1	5
Relations With Clientele	8	0	3	11
Security	0	0	1	1
Organization Policy and Administration	3	2	3	8
Relations With Superiors	2	0	0	2
Supervision	3	0	1	4
No Response	18	4	2	24

TABLE 52.--Graduate study and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Graduate Study: No Master's N	No Master's %	Has Master's N	Has Master's %	Total N	Total %
No	27	65.9	13	81.3	40	70.2
Yes	14	34.1	3	18.7	17	29.8
Total	41	100.0	16	100.0	57	100.0

χ^2 1.3422 d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Graduate Study and Relations With Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 43, the null hypothesis of no relationship between relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction and graduate study cannot be rejected.

TABLE 53.--Graduate study and relations with subordinates as a source of dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Graduate Study: No Master's N	No Master's %	Has Master's N	Has Master's %	Total N	Total %
Yes	12	29.3	6	37.5	18	31.2
No	29	70.7	10	62.5	39	68.8
Total	41	100.0	16	100.0	57	100.0

χ^2 = .3247 d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Field of Graduate Study and
Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Table 54 presents a summary of the sources of job dissatisfaction according to field of graduate study.

TABLE 54.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction according to field of graduate study

Factors	Field of Graduate Study				
	No Work on Master's	Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.	Master's in Tech. Agric.	Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.	Total
	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	4	0	0	3	7
Achievement	12	3	1	1	17
Work Itself	2	1	0	0	3
Advancement	1	0	0	0	1
Salary	1	0	0	1	2
Relations With Subordinates	9	3	3	3	18
Relations With County Board	4	0	0	1	5
Relations With Clientele	8	1	0	2	11
Security	0	0	0	1	1
Organization Policy and Administration	3	2	0	3	8
Relations With Superiors	2	0	0	0	2
Supervision	3	0	0	1	4
No Response	18	4	2	0	24

Field of Graduate Study and Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 55, any combination of categories to secure frequencies large enough to use the chi square test would result in a classification similar to Table 52, therefore these data are presented without application of a test of significance.

TABLE 55.--Field of graduate study and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Field of Graduate Study									
	No Work on Master's		Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Master's in Tech. Agric.		Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	33.3	3	37.5	1	20.0	2	18.2	17	29.8
No	22	66.7	5	62.5	4	80.0	9	81.8	40	70.2
Total	33	100.0	8	100.0	5	100.0	11	100.0	57	100.0

Field of Graduate Study and Relations With Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--Again the data prevent a test of the relationship between relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction and field of graduate study. A combination of categories would result in a test very similar to the one conducted in Table 53. The data without statistical test applied are presented in Table 56.

TABLE 56.--Field of graduate study and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Field of Graduate Study									
	No Work on Master's		Study in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Master's in Tech. Agric.		Master's in Soc. Sci. or Ed.		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	26.5	3	42.9	3	60.0	3	27.3	18	31.2
No	25	73.5	4	57.1	2	40.0	8	72.7	39	68.8
Total	34	100.0	7	100.0	5	100.0	11	100.0	57	100.0

Military Experience and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

The summary of sources of job dissatisfaction according to military experience is presented in Table 57.

Military Experience and Achievement as a Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--Because of small expected frequencies, the category of lower enlisted ranks was combined with that of no military experience and the two categories of non-commissioned officer and commissioned officer were combined also. This produced two categories of county leaders having served in the armed forces in positions with management responsibility and county leaders who had not so served. As shown in Table 58, the null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected.

TABLE 57.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction according to military experience

Factors	Military Experience				
	No	Lower Enlisted	Non-Com. Officer	Com. Officer	Total
	N	N	N	N	N
Recognition	0	2	4	1	7
Achievement	4	2	9	2	17
Work Itself	1	1	0	1	3
Advancement	0	1	0	0	1
Salary	1	0	1	0	2
Relations With Subordinates	6	3	8	1	18
Relations With County Board	2	0	1	2	5
Relations With Clientele	2	1	8	0	11
Security	0	1	0	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	1	2	2	3	8
Relations With Superiors	1	1	0	0	2
Supervision	2	1	1	0	4
No Response	8	3	7	6	24

TABLE 58.--Military experience and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Military Experience					
	None or Lower Enlisted		Non-Com. or Com. Officer		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	24.0	11	34.4	17	29.8
No	19	76.0	21	65.6	40	70.2
Total	25	100.0	32	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = .7654$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Military Experience and Relations with Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As indicated in Table 59 below, the null hypothesis of no relationship between military experience and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction cannot be rejected.

TABLE 59.--Military experience and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Military Experience					
	None or Lower Enlisted		Non-Com. or Com. Officer		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	36.0	9	28.1	18	31.2
No	16	64.0	23	71.9	39	63.8
Total	25	100.0	32	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = .3990$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Management Training and Source of Job Dissatisfaction

Table 60 shows the summary of job dissatisfaction according to exposure to management training.

TABLE 60.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction according to exposure to management training

	Management Training		
	No	Yes	Total
Factors	N	N	N
Recognition	0	7	7
Achievement	7	10	17
Work Itself	1	2	3
Advancement	0	1	1
Salary	0	2	2
Relations With Subordinates	6	12	18
Security	1	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	1	7	8
Relations With Superiors	0	2	2
Supervision	0	4	4
No Response	7	17	24

Management Training and Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As indicated in Table 61, the null hypothesis of no relationship between achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction and exposure to management training cannot be rejected at the .05 level. The Yates' correction for continuity was applied since one of the expected frequencies in the table dropped below 5. The chi square value approaches significance at the .20 level. A tendency was noted for those county leaders who have received some management training to receive job dissatisfaction from achievement less often than those county leaders who have not had management training.

TABLE 61.--Management training and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	8	53.5	32	76.2	40	70.2
Yes	7	46.7	10	23.8	17	29.8
Total	15	100.0	42	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.5040$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Management Training and Relations With Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction.--As shown in Table 62, the null hypothesis of no relationship between management training and relations with subordinates as a source of job satisfaction cannot be rejected.

TABLE 62.--Management training and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Sub-ordinates Mentioned	Management Training					
	No		Yes		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	40.0	12	28.6	18	31.2
No	9	60.0	30	71.4	39	68.6
Total	15	100.0	42	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = .2687$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Summary

The null hypothesis of no relationship between personal characteristics and sources of job dissatisfaction could not be rejected. In no case was a relationship found which was significant at the .05 level. There were some tendencies toward relationships, however. County leaders with fewer years of service with the Cooperative Extension Service tended to view relations with subordinates as more of a source of dissatisfaction than did county leaders with more years of service. County agents with a median number of years of service also tended to name relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction more often than did either those with fewer or more years of service as a county leader. County leaders who did not have a master's degree more often received job dissatisfaction from

lack of achievement. Finally, those county leaders who had not had management training were more likely to view lack of achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction.

Assumptions About the Nature of People and Performance of the Leadership Function

The third hypothesis, stated in null form, was: There is no relationship between the county extension leader's assumptions about the nature of people and performance of the leadership function.

As shown in Table 63, the null hypothesis of no relationship between performance of the leadership function and assumptions made about the nature of people by county extension leaders cannot be rejected. It had been expected that "above average" county leaders would tend to subscribe to Theory Y while those "below average" would be Theory X subscribers. While the finding was not significant, a pattern developed somewhat in reverse of the expected one. More "above average" county leaders were in the Theory X and Intermediate categories than in Theory Y. On the other hand, the "average" county leader tended to be found in the Theory Y and intermediate categories rather than Theory X.

TABLE 63.--Assumptions about the nature of people and performance of the leadership function

Assumptions About People	Performance of Leadership Function							
	Above Average		Average		Below Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory X	10	40.0	9	23.1	7	41.2	26	32.1
Intermediate	10	40.0	14	35.9	5	29.4	29	35.8
Theory Y	5	20.0	16	41.0	5	29.4	26	32.1
Total	25	100.0	39	100.0	17	100.0	81	100.0

$\chi^2 = 4.3171$ d.f. = 4 Not Significant

Source of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

The fourth hypothesis was: There is no relationship between source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and the county leader's performance of the leadership function.

Source of Job Satisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function.--Table 64 provides a summary of the responses to sources of job satisfaction according to performance of the leadership function.

Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

As shown in Table 65, the null hypothesis of no relationship between recognition as a source of job satisfaction

TABLE 64.--Source of job satisfaction and performance of the leadership function

	Performance of the Leadership Function			
	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	11	13	4	28
Achievement	11	23	14	48
Work Itself	9	10	2	21
Responsibility	1	1	1	3
Advancement	1	1	1	3
Salary	0	2	0	2
Working Conditions	0	1	0	1
Relations With Subordinates	1	1	0	2
Relations With County Board	0	0	1	1
Relations With Clientele	2	2	1	5
No Response	5	9	2	16

and performance of the leadership function cannot be rejected. There was, however, a trend for "above average" county leaders to receive job satisfaction from recognition more often than did "below average" county leaders. When the "average" category is eliminated as shown in Table 66, a stronger relationship is implied. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected at the .05 level, however.

TABLE 65.--Performance of the leadership function and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership: Above Average N	Above Average %	Average N	Average %	Below Average N	Below Average %	Total N	Total %
Yes	11	55.0	13	43.3	4	26.7	28	43.1
No	9	45.0	17	56.7	11	73.3	37	56.9
Total	20	100.0	30	100.0	15	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.8728$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

TABLE 66.--Performance of the leadership function and recognition as a source of job satisfaction

Recognition Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function: Average N	Average %	Average N	Average %	Total N	Total %
Yes	11	55.0	4	26.7	15	42.9
No	9	45.0	11	73.3	20	67.1
Total	20	100.0	15	100.0	35	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.7446$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

As shown in Table 67, the null hypothesis of no relationship between source of job satisfaction and performance of the leadership function can be rejected at the .05

TABLE 67.--Performance of the leadership function and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function							
	Above Average		Average		Below Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	11	55.0	23	76.7	14	93.3	48	73.8
No	9	45.0	7	23.3	1	6.7	17	26.2
Total	20	100.0	30	100.0	15	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 6.7773$ d.f. = 2 $P < .05$

level. This indicates that county extension leaders who derive satisfaction from achievement are seen by their district supervisor as performing the leadership function less effectively. Since one of the expected frequencies was below 5 and relatively little of the contribution to the chi square value came from the "average" category, this category was eliminated and a chi square value was computed for a four cell table. Yates' correction for continuity was applied and the chi square value was significant at the .05 level as shown in Table 68.

TABLE 68.--Performance of the leadership function and achievement as a source of job satisfaction

Achievement Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function: Above Average N	%	Below Average N	%	Total N	%
Yes	11	55.0	14	93.3	25	57.1
No	9	45.0	1	6.7	10	42.9
Total	20	100.0	15	100.0	35	100.0

$\chi^2 = 4.1599$ d.f. = 1 $P < .05$

Work Itself as Source of Job Satisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

As shown in Table 69, the null hypothesis of no relationship between work itself as a source of job satisfaction and performance of the leadership function cannot be rejected. However, the "average" category again contributed

TABLE 69.--Performance of the leadership function and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itslef Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function: Above Average N	%	Average N	%	Below Average N	%	Total N	%
Yes	9	45.0	10	33.3	2	13.3	21	32.3
No	11	55.0	20	66.7	13	86.7	44	67.7
Total	20	100.0	30	100.0	15	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.8399$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

little to the chi square value, so this category was eliminated and with the Yates' correction for continuity applied because one cell was below 5, there was an indication of a trend for "above average" county leaders to receive satisfaction from the work itself more often than did "below average" county leaders. However, as shown in Table 70, the null hypothesis of no relationship between work itself as a source of job satisfaction and performance of the leadership function cannot be rejected.

TABLE 70.--Performance of the leadership function and work itself as a source of job satisfaction

Work Itself Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function					
	Above Average		Below Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	55.0	2	13.3	11	31.4
No	11	45.0	13	86.7	24	68.6
Total	20	100.0	15	100.0	35	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.3134$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Source of Job Dissatisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

A summary of the responses of dissatisfaction given by performance of the leadership function is presented in Table 71.

TABLE 71.--Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction by performance of the leadership function

	Performance of the Leadership Function			
	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	3	2	2	7
Achievement	7	5	5	17
Work Itself	2	1	0	3
Advancement	0	0	1	1
Salary	1	1	0	2
Relations With Subordinates	3	11	4	18
Relations With County Board	0	4	1	5
Relations With Clientele	5	3	3	11
Security	1	0	0	1
Organization Policy and Administration	4	4	0	8
Relations With Superiors	0	1	1	2
Supervision	1	2	1	4
No Response	7	13	4	24

Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

As shown in Table 72, the null hypothesis of no relationship between performance of the leadership function and achievement as a source of dissatisfaction cannot be rejected. There did appear to be a slight tendency for county leaders who were "average" performers to name achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction less often than did either lower or higher performers.

TABLE 72.--Performance of the leadership function and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

	Performance of the Leadership Function							
	Above Average		Average		Below Average		Total	
Achievement Mentioned	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	38.9	5	19.2	5	38.5	17	29.8
No	11	61.1	21	80.8	8	61.5	40	81.2
Total	18	100.0	26	100.0	13	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.6483$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Relations with Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction and Performance of the Leadership Function

The relationship between relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction and performance of the leadership function is shown in Table 73. While the null

TABLE 73.--Performance of the leadership function and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function							
	Above Average		Average		Below Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	3	16.7	11	42.3	4	30.8	18	31.2
No	15	83.3	15	57.7	9	69.2	39	68.8
Total	18	100.0	26	100.0	13	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.2715$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected at the .05 level, there was a tendency for average county leaders to perceive relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction more often than either "above" or "below average" performers. Since the "below average" category contributed little to the chi square value, the relationship of "above average" performers is compared with "average" performers in Table 74. The relationship approached significance at the .05 level, indicating relations with subordinates to be more of a problem with "average" performers than with above average performers.

TABLE 74.--Above average and average performance of the leadership function and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Performance of the Leadership Function					
	Above Average		Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	3	16.7	11	42.3	14	31.8
No	15	83.3	15	57.7	30	68.2
Total	18	100.0	26	100.0	44	100.0

$\chi^2 = 3.1617$ d.f. = 1 Not Significant

Summary

Only one significant relationship was observed between performance of the leadership function and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In general, as the county leaders' effectiveness in performing the leadership function increased, achievement as a source of job satisfaction decreased. Therefore, only that portion of the null hypothesis as related to achievement as a source of satisfaction can be rejected at the .05 level.

Mild relationships were observed in certain other variables. There was a tendency for the importance of recognition as a source of job satisfaction to decrease as the effectiveness of the county leader decreased. As the county leader's rated performance of the leadership function increased, there was a tendency for the importance of work

itself as a source of job satisfaction to decrease. Achievement as a source of dissatisfaction was more important to both the "above average" and the "below average" performer than it was the "average" performer. A tendency was observed for both the "average" and "below average" county leaders to view relations with subordinates as more important as a source of job dissatisfaction than did the "above average" county leaders.

Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

The fifth hypothesis was: There is no relationship between a county leader's assumptions about the nature of people and the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Sources of Job Satisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People.--Table 75 presents the summary of the sources of job satisfaction according to assumptions made about the nature of people.

Recognition as Source of Job Satisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

As shown in Table 76 the null hypothesis of no relationship between recognition as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people by county extension leaders cannot be rejected.

TABLE 75.--Sources of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature or people

	Assumptions About People			
	Theory X	Intermediate	Theory Y	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	9	8	1	28
Achievement	18	16	14	48
Work Itself	7	8	6	21
Responsibility	1	1	1	3
Advancement	1	1	1	3
Salary	1	1	0	2
Working Conditions	1	0	0	1
Relations With Subordinates	0	1	1	2
Relations With County Board	0	0	1	1
Relations With Clientele	1	1	3	5
No Response	3	7	6	16

TABLE 76.--Recognition as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people

Recognition Mentioned	Assumptions About People							
	Theory X		Intermediate		Theory Y		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	9	39.1	8	36.4	11	55.0	28	43.1
No	14	60.9	14	63.6	9	45.0	37	56.9
Total	23	100.0	22	100.0	20	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.7353$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Achievement as Source of Job Satisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

Table 77 shows that the null hypothesis of no relationship between achievement as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people cannot be rejected.

TABLE 77.--Achievement as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature or people

Achievement Mentioned	Assumptions About People							
	Theory X		Intermediate		Theory Y		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	18	78.3	16	72.7	14	70.0	48	73.8
No	5	21.7	6	27.3	6	30.0	17	26.2
Total	23	100.0	22	100.0	20	100.0	65	100.0

$\chi^2 = .4342$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Work Itself as a Source of Job Satisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

The null hypothesis of no relationship between work itself as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people cannot be rejected, as shown in Table 78.

TABLE 78.--Work itself as a source of job satisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people

Work Itself Mentioned	Assumptions About People							
	Theory X		Intermediate		Theory Y		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	7	30.4	8	36.4	6	30.0	21	32.3
No	16	69.6	14	63.6	14	70.0	44	67.7
Total	23	100.0	22	100.0	20	100.0	65	100.0

$/^2$ = .2570 d.f. = 2 Not Significant

Sources of Job Dissatisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People.--The summary of sources of job dissatisfaction according to assumptions made about the nature of people is shown in Table 79.

Achievement as Source of Job Dissatisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

As shown in Table 80, the null hypothesis of no relationship between assumptions held about the nature of people and achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction

TABLE 79.--Sources of job dissatisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people

	Assumptions About People			
	Theory X	Intermediate	Theory Y	Total
Factors	N	N	N	N
Recognition	2	3	2	7
Achievement	6	8	3	17
Work Itself	2	1	0	3
Advancement	1	0	0	1
Salary	1	1	0	2
Relations With Subordinates	8	5	5	18
Relations With County Board	0	3	2	5
Relations With Clientele	5	3	3	11
Security	0	0	1	1
Organization Policy and Administration	4	0	4	8
Relations With Superiors	0	0	2	2
Supervision	1	1	2	4
No Response	7	13	4	24

TABLE 80.--Achievement as a source of job dissatisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people

Achievement Mentioned	Assumptions About People							
	Theory X		Intermediate		Theory Y		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	28.6	8	42.1	3	17.6	17	29.8
No	15	71.4	11	57.9	14	82.4	40	70.2
Total	21	100.0	19	100.0	17	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = 2.5812$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

cannot be rejected. There was a slight tendency for county leaders who subscribe to Theory Y to obtain less job dissatisfaction from achievement than for those subscribing to Theory X and Intermediate.

Relations with Subordinates as Source of Job Dissatisfaction and Assumptions About the Nature of People

As shown in Table 81, the null hypothesis of no relationship between assumptions about the nature of people and relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction cannot be rejected.

Summary

The null hypothesis of no relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people held by county leaders

TABLE 81.--Relations with subordinates as a source of job dissatisfaction and assumptions about the nature of people

Relations With Subordinates Mentioned	Assumptions About People							
	Theory X		Intermediate		Theory Y		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	8	38.1	5	26.3	5	29.4	18	31.6
No	13	61.9	14	73.7	12	70.6	39	68.4
Total	21	100.0	19	100.0	17	100.0	57	100.0

$\chi^2 = .6729$ d.f. = 2 Not Significant

cannot be rejected. Only achievement as a source of dissatisfaction showed any tendency toward a relationship, achievement appearing to be less of a source of dissatisfaction for county leaders who subscribed to Theory Y than for those subscribing to Theory X or Intermediate.

Summary

Table 82 provides a summary of the findings of this study. This table shows the independent variables along with the dependent variables and the probability level at which the null hypothesis of no relationship can be rejected.

TABLE 82.--Summary of the relationships between independent and dependent variables

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level of Significance
1	Age	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Tenure With the Organization	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Tenure as County Agent	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Graduate Study	Assumptions About People	.05
	Holding Master's Degree	Assumptions About People	.05
	Military Experience	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Management Training	Assumptions About People	N.S.
2	Age	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Tenure With the Organization	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.

TABLE 82--Continued

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level of Significance
	Tenure as County Agent	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Graduate Study	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Holding a Master's Degree	Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	.05
	Graduate Study	Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Field of Graduate Study	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	.02
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Military Experience	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Management Training	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.

TABLE 82--Continued

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level of Significance
		Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
		Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	N.S.
	Age	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
	Tenure With Organization	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
	Tenure as County Agent	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
	Graduate Study	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
	Military Experience	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
	Management Training	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.

TABLE 82--Continued

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level of Significance
		Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	N.S.
3	Assumptions About People	Performance of Leadership Function	N.S.
4	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	Performance of Leadership Function	N.S.
	Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	Performance of Leadership Function	.05
	Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	Performance of Leadership Function	N.S.
	Achievement as Source of Dissatisfaction	Performance of Leadership Function	N.S.
	Relations With Subordinates as Source of Dissatisfaction	Performance of Leadership Function	N.S.
5	Recognition as Source of Satisfaction	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Achievement as Source of Satisfaction	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Work Itself as Source of Satisfaction	Assumptions About People	N.S.

TABLE 82--Continued

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level of Significance
	Achievement as Source of Dis-satisfaction	Assumptions About People	N.S.
	Relations With Subordi-nates as Source of Dis-satisfaction	Assumptions About People	N.S.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the summary of the findings, the conclusions, and implications of this study, which concentrated on the county leader in the Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service. The county leader is the administrator of the county unit of this large adult education agency.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the interrelationships between certain personal characteristics of county extension leaders, their assumptions about the nature of people, their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and how well they manage or lead the members of the county staff in pursuit of the goals of the organization. The specific objectives of the study were:

1. Describe the county extension leader in Mississippi according to the assumptions that he makes about the nature of people.

2. Explore possible reasons for variations in the assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension leaders.

3. Describe Mississippi county extension leaders according to their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

4. Explore possible reasons for variations in sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by Mississippi county extension leaders.

5. Determine the relationship between assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension leaders and their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

6. Determine the relationship between assumptions made about the nature of people by Mississippi county extension leaders and performance of their leadership function.

7. Determine the relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by Mississippi county extension leaders and performance of their leadership function.

Methodology

A mailed questionnaire was used to collect data from county leaders of the Mississippi Cooperative Extension Service. This questionnaire collected data about certain personal characteristics of the county leader, his assumptions about the nature of people, and his sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Personal data collected included: age, tenure with the Cooperative Extension Service, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, field of

graduate study, military service, and exposure to management or administration training. The data to determine assumptions about the nature of people were collected from responses to a 30 item scale made up of statements modeled after McGregor's[1] description of managers who subscribe to Theory X and to Theory Y. Sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were determined from replies to questions asking the county leader to think of a time when he had felt good about his job and describe it and to do the same for a time when he had felt badly about his job.

The chi square was used to test the relationship between variables as hypothesized in five hypotheses.

Findings

The first findings of this study presented will be a description of the county leaders on assumptions made about the nature of people and on their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This will then be followed by a statement of each of the five hypotheses with a summary of findings after each.

Description of County Leader

County leaders were described according to their assumptions about the nature of people and according to

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[1]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 33-76.

their sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Scores on the scale designed to measure the assumptions made about the nature of people ranged from a low of 43 to a high of 84. The minimum possible score was 20 which was a reflection of a Theory X orientation. The maximum possible score was 100 which was a reflection of a Theory Y orientation. The mean score was 64.1, the mode was 66, and the median was 64, indicating a central tendency to be near the average of 20 and 100. Of the 81 scores, 53 were within one standard deviation unit of the mean. Scores differed significantly from district to district, with the Northeast District tending to be more Theory Y oriented than the other three districts, especially the Southeast and Northwest Districts.

Sources of job satisfaction for the county leaders were determined by analysis of the stories about good and bad feelings relative to their work as a county leader. Those factors appearing significantly more often in stories about good feelings than in stories about bad feelings included Achievement, Recognition, and Work Itself. Those appearing significantly more often in stories about bad feelings than in stories about good feelings were Relations with Subordinates, Organization Policy and Administration, and Supervision. The first group can be classified as motivators and the second group as hygiene factors according to Herzberg's

motivation-hygiene theory of motivation. This finding is consistent with findings reported by Herzberg.[1] Of the stories told about good feelings 74 per cent of them included achievement references, and 30 per cent of the stories about bad feelings gave indications that failure was involved in the bad feeling. This extremely high rate of appearance of an achievement theme in the stories of county extension leaders indicates the achievement orientation under which many of them operate. Apparently, the Mississippi county extension leader has a high level of achievement motivation.

Hypotheses

This section will present the five hypotheses tested along with a summary of the findings when each of the hypotheses were tested. The hypotheses are stated in null form.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was:

> There is no relationship between age, tenure with the organization, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management or administration training and assumptions about the nature of people.

Only that portion of this hypothesis which deals with graduate study can be rejected. County leaders who

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[1]Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 1966), pp. 92-129.

have master's degrees are significantly more likely to subscribe to Theory Y than are county leaders who do not hold master's degrees.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was:

> There is no relationship between age, tenure with the organization, tenure as a county agent, graduate study, military service, and exposure to management training and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction according to the motivation-hygiene theory.

Two significant relationships were found between personal characteristics and sources of job satisfaction. Graduate study and achievement as a source of satisfaction were involved in both of them. Achievement was significantly more important as a source of job satisfaction to county leaders who did not hold master's degrees than it was to those who had earned master's degrees. The second finding was that county leaders who hold degrees in the social sciences or in education named achievement as a source of job satisfaction significantly less often than did county leaders who held master's degrees in technical agriculture or who did not hold master's degrees. Only that portion of the null hypothesis concerning graduate study and achievement as a source of job satisfaction can be rejected.

No significant relationships were found between sources of job dissatisfaction and personal characteristics.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was:

> There is no relationship between the county extension leader's assumptions about the nature of people and performance of the leadership function.

This hypothesis could not be rejected.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis was:

> There is no relationship between source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction and the county leader's performance of the leadership function.

Only one significant relationship was observed between performance of the leadership function and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Generally, as the county leaders' effectiveness in performing the leadership function increased, achievement as a source of job satisfaction decreased. Therefore, only that portion of the above hypothesis which concerns achievement as a source of satisfaction can be rejected.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis was:

> There is no relationship between a county leader's assumptions about the nature of people and the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

This hypothesis could not be rejected.

Conclusions

One of the major conclusions of this study is that county extension leaders in Mississippi are extremely achievement conscious. With achievement accounting for 74 per cent of the stories about good feelings and 30 per cent of those about bad feelings and with three of the four significant findings involving achievement, this conclusion is obvious.

Another conclusion is that graduate study is related to assumptions about the nature of people. County leaders with master's degrees, especially in social science or education, were less likely to perceive achievement as a source of job satisfaction. Finally, performance of the leadership function was inversely related to achievement. Although seemingly unconnected, these two findings may be related. Stories told by county leaders which related to roles as technical specialists in agriculture were more likely coded as achievement than stories related to their roles as administrators of the county extension staff. Therefore, it is possible that county leaders who failed to relate incidents with achievement themes were more oriented toward their job as county leader and therefore got higher ratings on their leadership function. Also, one would expect work in the graduate school, especially in social sciences and education to prepare a county leader to perform his leadership function more

effectively and to receive satisfaction more often in this area rather than in achieving success as a county agricultural agent.

One must conclude that assumptions about the nature of people is either not related to performance, source of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, or certain personal factors, or it was not adequately assessed by the instrument.

Implications for Theory

Both Herzberg's ideas and McGregor's concepts are based on the hierarchy of needs theory. One would expect these to be logically connected, however, this study lends no support to such an assumption.

This study does support the theory of Herzberg with the findings being consistent with previous findings using the Herzberg critical incident technique. However, one finding does cast some doubt upon the two-factor theory of motivation, which essentially hypothesizes that certain factors are responsible for job satisfaction and other factors cause dissatisfaction but cannot cause satisfaction. Achievement in this study was the leading cause of satisfaction, but it also ranked a high second on cause of dissatisfaction.

Implications for Practice

The principal implication for practice of this study is that the scale for assessing the assumptions about the

nature of people probably has little application in the Co-operative Extension Service. Apparently, the performance of the leadership function is far more complicated than a simple relationship with assumptions about the nature of people would indicate. Without further research this scale apparently has little application as a tool in selecting prospective county leaders, or in indicating in-service training.

The motivation-hygiene system of determining job satisfaction also appears to have little application as an assessment tool. It is important for practice to note that county extension leaders are primarily achievement oriented. For the county leader to be happy in his job he apparently needs to have a high rate of success with his activities, to receive recognition for his efforts, and to have meaningful work. These would be expected of the professional worker in many professions. To avoid dissatisfaction he must avoid failure, have good relations with his subordinates, and have little difficulty with the organization policy and administration and with his supervisors.

Implications for Research

This study has provided some evidence that a mailed questionnaire can be used to collect data for the study of job attitudes through the critical incident technique as developed by Herzberg. This is probably true, however, only

for professional or other highly educated subjects. Even with subjects of this type, this study indicates that the researcher must be willing to accept less than the ideal return rate. Since 17 out of 81 county leaders failed to respond to the section asking for good feelings about the job and 24 to the section requesting stories about bad feelings, a study to determine the characteristics of those not responding as compared with those who did would contribute to the methodology of the study of job attitudes.

The scale used in assessing assumptions about the nature of people appears to have much face validity. The failure of this scale to be related significantly to performance of the leadership function by the county leader questions this validity. However, before the scale is discarded, a study which concentrated on the relationship between scores on this scale and actual administrative practices would provide additional validity data and would possibly indicate some practical use for it. Such a study could use an observer to assess the administrator's behavior or could concentrate on the members of the administrator's staff through interviews.

The fact that the scores of the county leaders in different districts differed significantly also raises some research questions. The Northeast District which was significantly higher than the others, especially the Northwest

and Southeast, is made up of counties which are predominantly rural. The agriculture in the district tends to have a history of small independent farmers, as contrasted to the Northeast District where the plantation system of agriculture developed. Seemingly, an area where there was a social structure composed largely of small land owners with little difference in status would tend to develop values consistent with Theory Y. On the other hand, an area where a few individuals controlled much of the agriculture in the county might tend to develop values consistent with Theory X. County leaders in working closely with people over a period of time could be expected to develop similar values. Therefore, a study which concentrated upon relationships of the county leader with other individuals in the county could provide additional insight into the process of the formation of values.

Job satisfaction within the Cooperative Extension Service is a subject about which little is known. A study which attempted to assess the level of job satisfaction and the cause of various levels would help administrators of the Cooperative Extension Service to make decisions about practices and polices of the organization. This study should concentrate upon the factors within the organization which contribute to job satisfaction and upon those which are sources of dissatisfaction. It should seek to determine

the extent to which these sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are common to the majority of the employees and the extent to which they are dependent upon certain personal characteristics.

The apparent high level of achievement motivation among county extension leaders seems to indicate that this would be a fruitful area of research within the Cooperative Extension Service organization. A study to determine the extent to which achievement motivation is important to the success of the county extension worker would be useful. The study should attempt to assess the importance of achievement motivation to the extension worker in carrying out the various responsibilities of his job. For example, does a high level of achievement motivation enhance or hinder the extension worker in his program development responsibilities? Does it enhance the extension worker's preparing educational materials? Or, does it help only during the program execution phase? The role of achievement motivation in the county leader's management of the county staff is also a fruitful area of research. Does a high level of achievement motivation result in a county staff with a high level of morale? Or, does it result in a feeling by county staff members that they are being driven to achieve to such an extent that morale is low? All of these questions appear to make the area of achievement motivation research an important

one for future research efforts in extension education. With McClelland's finding that achievement motivation can be taught,[1] any findings that achievement motivation is related to superior performance may have important implications for in-service training programs.

The tendency for county agents with longer tenure to be more oriented to Theory Y than those with less tenure suggests another area of research. A study which determined the extent to which this condition exists and its cause would be helpful to extension administrators. County agents could tend to develop a Theory Y orientation after working with people over a period of years. On the other hand, the administrative climate of the organization may be such that people with Theory X orientations tend to find employment elsewhere.

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[1]David C. McClelland, "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," American Psychologist, Vol. 20, No. 5 (1955), pp. 321-333; and David C. McClelland and David G. Winter, Motivating Economic Achievement (New York: The Free Press, 1969), pp. 212-231.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

P. O. Box 5406
State College, Mississippi 39762
July 10, 1971

I will appreciate your taking time to complete the enclosed questionnaire. The data collected by this questionnaire will permit me to complete my dissertation and the requirements for my degree from Florida State.

I realize that you have a very busy schedule, but I hope that you can find the 30 minutes or less that it will take to complete this questionnaire.

I hope that you will express your true feelings in your answers to all of the questions. Your identity will be guarded and at no time will your name be placed on the questionnaire. I will identify your questionnaire by the schedule number only and will report any findings as a summary for all of the questionnaires. The contents of any individual questionnaires will not be disclosed to anyone else in the Extension Service.

Please complete all of the questionnaire and follow the instructions in each section. If possible, please return to me in the addressed and stamped enclosed envelope by August 1.

I sincerely appreciate your help. Thank you.

Sincerely yours,

Charles W. Sappington

DATA COLLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Schedule No._____

Section I

Please complete the following by filling in or checking the appropriate blank.

1. How many years have you been employed with the Extension Service?

   _____years.

2. How many years have you served in your present position?

   _____years.

3. What is your approximate age? (Check One)

   _____Less than 35.

   _____35-44.

   _____45-54.

   _____55 and over.

4. Please check the appropriate blank below that describes your situation as far as graduate study is concerned.

   _____I have taken no graduate courses.

   _____I have taken graduate courses only as required for professional improvement.

   _____I am working toward a Master's degree.

   _____I have a Master's degree.

5. If you are working toward a Master's degree or have one, please indicate your major field._____

6. If you have served in the armed forces, what was your highest rank?

   _____

7. Have you ever taken a course in administration or management? (Check applicable statement or statements)

_____I have had no courses in administration or management.

_____I have taken the course taught by Professor Ferguson for county Extension Leaders.

_____I have taken the course taught by Dr. Seaman in administration for county Extension Leaders.

_____I have taken other courses in administration or management.

Section II

Listed below is a series of statements. You will probably find that some of these agree with your views while others do not. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement using the scale below each statement for recording your answer. For example:

It is better to take a vacation in July than January:

:	:	X	:	:	:	:
Strongly Agree	Agree		Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	

If you think that it is better to take a vacation in July, place an (X) above "agree" (as shown); if you think it is much better, place one above "strongly agree." You would do the same for "disagree" and "strongly disagree" if you have similar feelings in the opposite direction. If it really makes no difference, place an (X) over "undecided."

There are no right or wrong answers to the following statements. I am interested in your opinion. Please feel free to clarify your answers by writing in the margin.

1. If most people had the money to satisfy their needs, they would not want to work.

:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Strongly Agree	Agree		Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	

2. The more a person feels free to set his own work goals, the greater his productivity tends to be.

:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Strongly Agree	Agree		Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	

3. Most men must be closely controlled if the organization is to receive optimum productivity from them.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

4. Generally people have relatively little ambition.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. The use of rewards (pay, promotion, etc.) and punishment (lack of promotion, etc.) is not the best way to motivate people to do their work.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. In most cases, committee members would rather not assume any major responsibility in regard to that committee's objective.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

7. The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

8. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

9. The average man is lazy and works as little as possible.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10. Work can be a significant source of satisfaction for the majority of people.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

11. Most people do not want to be directly involved in organizational decision-making.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

12. Most people are basically good and kind.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

13. Most people acquire the majority of life's satisfactions away from the job.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

14. Generally speaking, men will not work hard unless they are forced to do so.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

15. In a work situation, if the subordinate cannot influence the superior, then the superior loses some influence over the subordinate.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

16. The majority of people really don't know what is best for themselves.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

17. Most people are inherently self-centered and are indifferent to the needs of the organization.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

18. Most people like to tackle new and difficult problems.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

19. It is safest to assume that most people have a vicious streak and it will come out when given the chance.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

20. Most people dislike responsibility--they prefer to be led.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

21. Most people are by nature resistant to change.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. The chief motivating factor for most workers is the amount of salary received.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

23. The average human being learns to seek additional responsibility.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

24. People are passive--even resistant to organizational needs.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25. Generally the threat of punishment is the most effective way to bring about increased efforts in reaching group goals.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26. Most people can acquire leadership skills regardless of their inborn traits or abilities.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

27. The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

28. The main reason most people work is to gain financial security.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

29. The capacity for assuming responsibility is present in the vast majority of people.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

30. Most people do not seem to be willing to put forth more than a minimum of effort.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Section III

During the course of our work we all have things happen to us that influence the way we feel about our jobs. Some of these things make us feel exceptionally good while others make us feel exceptionally bad. In other words, some events or series of events make us have favorable feelings toward our work and others make us have unfavorable feelings. In this section I will appreciate your describing one event or series of events that made you feel exceptionally good and one that made you feel exceptionally bad. Please include both.

1. Please think of a time since you have been a county leader when you felt exceptionally good (better than average) about your job.

   a. Please describe the event or series of events that led up to this good feeling. Please include details such as who was involved (description only names not needed), what happened, and how long ago this occurred.

   b. What did this event mean to you personally? In other words, why did this event or series of events make you feel good?

2. Please think of a time since you have been a county leader when you felt exceptionally bad (worse than average) about your job.

   a. Please describe the event or series of events that led up to this bad feeling. Please include details such as who was involved, what happened, and how long ago this occurred.

   b. What did this event mean to you personally? In other words, why did this event or series of events make you feel badly?

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

APPENDIX B

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION OF COUNTY EXTENSION LEADERS AND EXAMPLES OF STORIES CODED UNDER EACH FACTOR

Factor Contributing to Satisfaction	Example Story
Recognition	When my district agent commended me for doing a good job. This was shortly after I became county leader. I had wondered how he felt about my work since he had given me the job.
Achievement	In organizing a feeder calf sale during May, three county meetings were held in three different areas to explain the program. A good response was received in all meetings. Of course, we always feel good when a program seems to go over.
Work Itself	I feel good when I arise every morning to know that the Lord has spared my life at least another day with the clientele I serve. Every day is a new experience which I am grateful.
Responsibility	When I was selected as county leader, I felt I had met responsibility and was determined to improve work and service.
Advancement	When I was made county leader, it gave me a good feeling that I was at least capable of doing the job outlined for me.
Salary	The board of supervisors gave me the largest raise in salary they had ever given a county agent at one time.
Working Conditions	When I came to the county the office was located in an old building that was in bad shape. After two years of working with the board of supervisors and showing that we needed a better place to work and hold meetings they said that if the farm leadership was in favor of a building they would go along. After several meetings with the leadership and the board,

	it was decided that the extension staff would get a new office building.
Relations With Subordinates	Several years ago a misunderstanding developed between the associate home economist and myself--a misunderstanding that could have developed into a rather serious problem. We both realized this and resolved our differences and have had the utmost respect for each other since.
Relations With County Board	The county-wide Bang's testing program started approximately five years ago. Excellent cooperation from the board of supervisors and cattlemen was received.
Relations with Clientele	I can think of several things that made me feel good as a county leader. One, however, was the initiation of a cucumber program. Many of the people involved were low-income and needed a source of extra income. Many of these were black people. One small sized black farmer who had a large family and who worked hard said this was the best money crop he had ever grown and thanked me personally for getting it started in the county.
Factor Contributing to Dissatisfaction	
Recognition	When my co-workers received salary increase they did not deserve, and I was not considered for the extra responsibilities, naturally I did not like this. On other occasions I thought I should have been recognized for a job "Well done." Others did.
Achievement	In 1969 we were well underway with a vegetable program, and all of a sudden everyone lost interest.

Work Itself	The _____ Feeder Pig Sale has served many people especially in our area of small farms. It also brings in a good deposit to our banks. A lot of work on my part and many producers goes into the operation of the sale. There is always that anti-group. After a week's hard work just in preparation not to mention all time prior, worming pigs, buyer help and two to three nights' sleep, there is ten days of fighting with this anti-group with the goal of killing the sale.
Advancement	_____ years ago the district agent did not want to promote me to a higher position because I looked too young to work with adult farmers.
Salary	The salary of the county leader position was cut $1500 after I got the job.
Relations with Subordinates	I have had some problems with keeping a good working relationship between our present home economist and myself as well as her relations with the entire staff.
Relations with County Board	In __date__ the Board of Supervisors gave the Home Economist and Assistant Home Economist a raise without the county leader knowing about it.
Interpersonal Relations with Clientele	In 1969 after making approximately eight trips to one farm that was producing sweet corn and tomatoes for the local market plus letters written and telephone calls for more information to help this individual, I was surprised when he suggested to the board member that he couldn't get cooperation from me.

Security	When I first heard of the President's revenue sharing proposal. I had begun to feel safe or secure in my job. This upset the apple cart.
Organization Policy and Administration	It would appear that the time has come when continuous work whether it be developing a program, long hours or accomplishments may no longer have a place within employment agencies. The reason being less qualified, social security experts who feel that they can render the services needed by farmers of the county in this mechanical age of farming.
Relations with Superiors	(All of the stories coded to this factor described such specific and unique situations that the anonymity of the writer could not be preserved.)
Supervision	(All of these stories were also so unique that anonymity could not be preserved if they were quoted here.)

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